

The Historical Outlook

A JOURNAL FOR

READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED IN COOPERATION WITH COMMITTEES OF

THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

AND

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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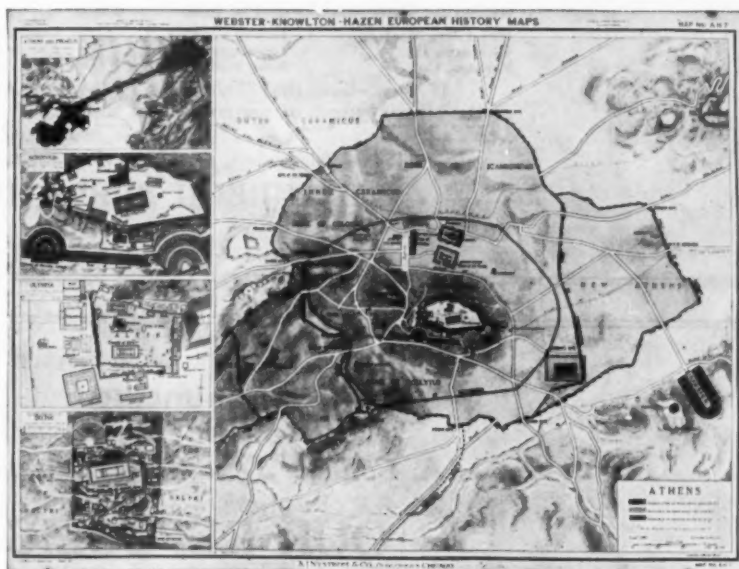
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The Progress of the National Council for the Social Studies

REPORT OF THE SECRETARY, EDGAR DAWSON.

In the December, 1922, issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* the plans of the National Council were outlined under the following headings:

- I. The proposed amendments to the constitution.
- II. The organization which would result from the amendments.
- III. The relation of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* to the Council.
- IV. The work planned for the Council.

1. To inform the public as to the social studies.
2. To survey the status and outlook for these studies.
3. To list the outstanding efforts to improve these studies.

V. The financial condition of the organization.

It is most gratifying to report at this time that real progress has been made in all of the items listed.

I. THE AMENDED CONSTITUTION

The amendments then proposed were adopted at the annual meeting held in Cleveland on February 24, 1923, and the constitution now reads as follows:

I. NAME. This organization shall be known as *THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES*. The expression "social studies" as here used includes history, economics, government, sociology, and geography.

II. OBJECT. The purpose of this organization is to promote the association and co-operation of teachers of the social studies and of school administrators, supervisors, teachers of education, and others who are interested in obtaining from the social studies the maximum results in education for citizenship. The National Council will especially undertake to stimulate and encourage study and investigation, experiment and research, concerning problems of teaching the social studies; and to serve as an agency for disseminating information and promoting discussion in a scientific spirit, but without endorsing any particular program of studies or pedagogical method.

III. MEMBERSHIP, DUES, MEETINGS.

1. Any person in sympathy with the purpose of the National Council may become a member of the National Council on approval of the Executive Committee and the payment of the annual dues.

2. The annual dues shall be determined by the Executive Committee, but until otherwise ordered the annual dues shall be \$1.00 a year.

3. The regular annual business meeting of the National Council shall be held in connection with the annual meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association unless otherwise directed by vote of the National Council or of the Executive Committee, and announced to the members at least a month prior to the date of the meeting.

IV. ORGANIZATION.

1. The officers shall be a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary-Treasurer, and a Corresponding Secretary. They shall be elected for one year, at the annual business meeting; and they shall perform the duties commonly pertaining to their respective offices.

2. There shall be a Board of Directors composed of the four elected officers of the National Council, the Editor of the *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, and representatives of designated organizations devoted to special fields of scholarship and of professional interest. It shall be the duty of this Board to exercise, under the authority of the National Council, general supervision and control of business affairs and of enterprises and activities undertaken to promote the purposes for which the National Council is organized. Until otherwise directed by the National Council, the Board of Directors shall be composed of representatives designated by the following organizations (one from each):

- American Historical Association.
- American Economics Association.
- American Political Science Association.
- American Sociological Society.
- National Council of Geography Teachers.
- Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association.
- The Elementary, Secondary, and Teachers College Sections of the National Education Association.
- The National Society of College Teachers of Education.
- The regional associations of teachers of history and civics for New England, the Middle States and Maryland, the Mississippi Valley, the Southern States, and the Pacific Coast.

3. There shall be an Executive Committee composed of the four officers and three additional members elected for one year by the Board of Directors. The Executive Committee, subject to instruction by the Board of Directors or of the National Council, shall plan and arrange for meetings, investigations, and other means and measures for realizing the purposes for which the National Council is organized; and for these purposes, the Executive Committee, subject to instruction by the Board of Directors or of the National Council, may appoint or authorize the appointment of committees, may appropriate money from the Treasury, and may fill vacancies that may occur in its membership.

4. The Executive Committee shall appoint in advance of the annual business meeting a nominating committee of three members, who shall submit to the National Council nominations for all offices to be filled by election at the annual business meeting; but additional nominations from the floor shall be in order.

V. AMENDMENT OF THE CONSTITUTION. This Constitution may be amended at any annual business meeting by a majority vote of the members present; but proposed amendments must be in the hands of the Secretary in writing at least a month in advance of the annual business meeting, and must be by him announced to the members with the program of the annual meeting.

II. PROGRESS OF THE ORGANIZATION

The following list of Directors are the governing board until other members are appointed by the several organizations which they represent:

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Members of the Board of Directors, Ex-Officio.

1. W. H. Hathaway, President, Riverside High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.
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4. Nellie L. Jackson, Corresponding Secretary, Teachers College, Detroit, Mich.
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- American Economic Association:
7. L. C. Marshall, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
- American Political Science Association:
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- New England History Teachers Association:
16. Wayne M. Shipman, High School, Walpole, Mass.
- Middle States and Maryland History Teachers Association:
17. J. M. Gambrill, Teachers College, Columbia University, N. Y. C.
- Mississippi Valley Historical Association:
18. R. M. Tryon, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
- Pacific Coast Branch, American Historical Association:
19. J. J. Van Nostrand, Jr., University of California, Berkeley, Cal.
- Southern Education Society:
20. * W. E. Gilbert, State Normal School, Radford, Va.

At a meeting of the Board of Directors, which was held in Chicago on May 5, 1923, Professor L. C. Marshall was elected chairman, and Messrs. Gettell, McCormack, and McKinley were elected to serve as members of the Executive Committee with the four officers elected at the February, 1923, meeting. These three members represent, respectively, first, the Pacific Coast, the Middle West, and the Atlantic Coast; and second, the University, School Administration, and the journal of the National Council.

The Directors deliberated at length on a program

* There is as yet no South Atlantic Association of Teachers of History and other Social Studies. Mr. Gilbert is representing this section by courtesy for the present.

of work for the Executive Committee and the following statement was the outcome:

Acting within the purposes set forth in our constitution, the Board of Directors authorize the following lines of activity:

1. To promote co-operation among those working in the social studies.
 - a. Provide meetings for joint discussion.
 - b. Taking part in conventions of other organizations.
2. To conduct critical and co-ordinating studies and surveys of the social studies as to:
 - a. The objectives sought.
 - b. The subject matter used.
 - c. The methods of presentation and handling.
 - d. The arrangement and administration of courses.
 - e. Teacher training.

And that these studies should include past development, present practice, and prospective development.

3. To promote general interest in and recognition of the social studies through distributing information.

The constitution and organization of the National Council, as proposed under I and II last year, is now fairly completed.

III. THE COUNCIL AND THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK

At the February, 1923, meeting a discussion of the relation of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK to the National Council resulted in the appointment of a committee to consult with the Editor on certain lines of co-operation. Mr. R. O. Hughes, Chairman, called a meeting of this Committee in Philadelphia, when many suggestions were made for closer affiliation. The Editor suggested that the title page of the magazine be changed to the form it now has, and accepted as practicable all of the suggestions presented by the Committee. The outstanding need in the past has been the lack of papers on the subjects which some members of the committee thought the magazine should present more fully. With the growing interest in the social studies and a larger willingness on the part of workers to present papers for publication, it will be possible for the magazine to present to its readers a more varied and stimulating menu.

A number of the members of the National Council are still not subscribers to the magazine, which is unfortunate for them, and many of the subscribers are not members of the National Council. It would seem reasonable to expect that this condition will soon change, for surely all who are interested enough in the social studies to be members of an organization should read and support the only journal devoted to our profession; and those who are interested enough to read the journal should be willing to contribute fifty cents a year to the support of an organization built on the lines set forth above. As soon as the two groups become identical, much of the expense of administration may be eliminated through the maintenance of only one catalogue and the handling of only one set of bills. The handling of two sets of names means more effort and outlay than most of our members suspect.

IV. THE WORK OF THE COUNCIL

1. The public has been informed through such gatherings as the meeting in San Francisco last July when more than five hundred teachers, administrators, and others attended our meeting held while the National Education Association was in session, and through conferences held at most of the leading summer schools this year.

2. While no adequate survey of the social studies has as yet been provided, a request by the Committee on Schools of the American Historical Association secured from the Institute of Education Research of Teachers College, Columbia University, a grant of funds and technical assistance to collect such information as to history curricula as would form a basis for a report on policy to the officers of the Association. The person selected to collect the information having discovered late in the summer that it was not possible for him to carry on the work, and there being danger of the grant lapsing by default, the Secretary of the National Council undertook to take his place in so far as other duties made this possible. Questionnaires sent out by the Bureau of Education at the request of the committee, a test of some of the results of a course in American history, and other similar lines of inquiry, will doubtless reveal much of the information needed by both the American Historical Association and the National Council. It is clearly recognized that the present effort is by no means a thorough or complete one, but its results may show why such a thorough and complete investigation is necessary and give definiteness to the lines along which it should be conducted.

3. Under a grant of financial aid from the Commonwealth Fund to the National Council, Professor Gambrill was asked to make the study which is reported in this issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* (see pp. 381-406).

This report, with that of *The History Inquiry* (including some facts about courses in the other social studies), will furnish a basis of information from which those who are planning for the future may see somewhat more clearly. There can be little doubt that provision will soon be made for such a study of this field of education as is conceived on lines somewhat in accord with its importance.

ANNOUNCEMENT OF MEETINGS

A joint luncheon round table has been planned for December 27 with the American Historical and Political Science Associations. The purpose of the program is to bring about an exchange of views among persons who represent different interests. Two speakers will represent each of the three organizations, ending with Principal McCormack, who will offer the point of view of a high school principal. Teachers and school administrators can spend a profitable day in Columbus, for the afternoon will offer the conference on history in the schools of the American Historical Association, when the reports on new experiments and on *The History Inquiry* will be discussed.

The next regular annual meeting of the National

Council will be held in Chicago at the time of the convention of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association in the week of February 25. The date has not been determined. Principal McCormack of our Executive Committee is chairman of the Program Committee and will probably plan a morning session, a luncheon round table, and an afternoon session. It will be wise to make hotel reservations both in Columbus and Chicago as long in advance as possible.

THE FUNCTION OF OUR ORGANIZATION

It is necessary for us frequently to recur to the basic idea on which the National Council rests. Its *raison d'être* is the fact that the best results will not be secured from undertakings in this field of education until the various contributory elements are willing to work together with the least possible attention to the grinding of their several particularistic axes. Teachers and scholars must merge their experience and their scientific knowledge; teachers, scholars, and administrators must unite in making courses of study; academic departments in the colleges and universities must join forces in the training of teachers; the academic departments of history, government, economics, sociology, and geography must forget the conserving of the interests of their own subjects and devote their attention to solving the problem of selecting from the mass of their knowledge the essentials of courses which can be put into that amount of the pupil's time which administrators show to be available. It is the function of the National Council to give objective reality to this ideal of co-operation.

PROBLEMS TO BE SOLVED

Among the problems to be solved through such co-operative effort, the most important and the most difficult is to effect a definite and generally accepted statement of aims and values, objectives or purposes. When the National Council published in the last annual number of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* five statements of the characteristic elements of five subjects, its purpose was to move as rapidly as possible toward a merging of these statements in the light of the experience of scholars, teachers, and school administrators. The Joint Commission, provided with sufficient funds to facilitate the effort, then took over the first stage of this undertaking,—to remake the separate statements,—and the National Council turned its attention to other things, because its treasury did not make it possible for it to work in the way the Joint Commission could. Now that the Joint Commission, having restated the separate elements, has suspended its operations, it seems to be desirable for the National Council to resume its effort to complete the task of formulation.

An interchange of ideas and the results of experience in the handling of materials of instruction and methods of class administration will greatly facilitate the formulation of a statement of objectives. Abstract thinking is not likely to be equal to the task if it is unaided by the suggestion which will grow out of an effort of different minds to unite. This

interchange is being served more and more fully by contributors to *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*. As soon as all who are interested in this great enterprise are willing to place their experience promptly at the disposal of their colleagues through its pages, so soon will the road to a solution of our problems of stating our purposes be paved.

But the search for *possible* objectives must be aided by a constant testing on a scale that is large enough and with methods that are fully enough standardized to bring agreement to such minds as are subject to the influence of facts. Where opinions differ as to what is desirable, it may be that the difference cannot be removed, but where there is difference as to what is possible a well-developed system of examination may reveal facts enough to bring about agree-

ment. Therefore, the perfecting of our system of testing is one of the essential elements of ultimate success in our undertaking.

There are many other things to be done,—the determination of the amount of time the social studies should have in the curriculum, the organization of courses for this allowance of time, the differentiation between courses to be required of some and courses to be required of all pupils, and so on,—but these things are superficial as compared with the basic problem of aims and values. To the solution of this problem the National Council can render real service through the facilitating of an exchange of experience by those who attend conventions of teachers and those who are willing to contribute matured statements for *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

Sociology and the Social Studies, with Special Reference to History

BY PROFESSOR CHARLES A. ELLWOOD, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

The relations of the social studies to one another still continue to be the subject of much discussion. If the various workers in the social studies, however, would consider each what he himself is doing and the relation of his work to the work of other specialists, there should not be much difficulty about the matter. To make this clear, let us take a concrete field of social study, namely, American society in all the aspects of its past development and present condition.

Now it is evident that the history of the people of the United States is unique. It is not the history, for example, of Canada, Australia, or any other English-speaking people. One might almost say that the history of the people of the United States and the histories of the other English-speaking countries were each so distinct that a single page would serve to identify the history of one rather than of another. In other words, the events in the development of each of the English-speaking peoples have been so unique and peculiar that there is no difficulty in identifying them as belonging to one people rather than another. The conditions which led up to these events, however, would show more similarity, while the institutions of the various English-speaking peoples would show very close similarity; in some cases, practical identity. Now, if written history deals with the events, conditions, and institutions of a people's past, it is evident that, even though there may be similarities, the history of each people will be distinctive, unique, and "particular," as we say.

On the other hand, the economics of the various English-speaking people would present very little that is unique, distinctive, and "particular." Certain economic facts, of course, might be so, but economics as a theoretical science would be chiefly interested, not in facts concerning the English-speaking peoples, but in the generalizations from these facts. Consequently, there would be very little difference in the economics of the various English-speaking peoples. The theoretical generalizations in every case would

be the same and for the most part the lines of reasoning employed to reach these generalizations would be practically the same. Hence, the economics of the people of Canada and of the people of the United States would have little to distinguish one from the other. This would be even more true if Canada had about the same population, the same large cities, and the same industrial civilization as the United States. Their histories, however, as histories would still retain the same distinctiveness.

It is evident that economics as a science aims at universal generalizations. It is not interested especially in the unique and particular except as it can be brought under some universal principle. On the other hand, it is evident that history is always interested in the unique and particular. If it did not exalt the unique and the particular it would lose its identity as *history* and become merged in the theoretical social studies. Economics, on the other hand, as a theoretical social study so emphasizes the general and the universal that the economics of one people differs very slightly from the economics of another people in the same general stage of industrial development. Indeed, it is the ambition of economics to reach such general and universal truths that they will apply to all peoples in all stages of development. It may have to depend upon many historical facts and many preliminary historical generalizations to reach such universal truths. But universal truth is the aim of all theoretical science, and of the sciences of society not less than the sciences of the physical world.

Now, what I have said regarding economics manifestly applies equally to sociology. The sociology of the people of the United States and of Canada, for example, differ very little, so little that a textbook in sociology written with social conditions in the United States as background serves very well for a textbook in sociology in Canada. On the other hand, a history of the United States cannot take the place of the history of Canada at all. There are,

of course, certain distinctive and peculiar problems existing in American society and certain distinctive and peculiar problems existing in Canadian society. But sociology would minimize these differences, due to the character and number of the population, geographical position and resources, differences in the size of the cities, differences in industrial and political development, etc. Sociology would rather be interested in the more general social facts, such as that both the United States and Canada were colonial, English-speaking societies, that both had the same general traditions of Western civilization, and that both had the same fundamental social conditions and problems. The sociology of Canada and the sociology of the United States would be so nearly identical that whole pages and chapters of the one might be substituted for the other. Even when a general social study like sociology is *forced* to deal with particulars, it deals with them from the standpoint of the universal, and its emphasis is upon the universal rather than upon the particular.

Both the economics of the people of the United States and the sociology of the people of the United States, however, deal with universals. How, then, shall we distinguish the one from the other? The distinction is not any more difficult than the distinction between history and sociology. It is evident that economics is a special social study concerned with a particular section or aspect of our social life—namely, its industrial and business side. Economics is a specialism which aims at universal truths concerning markets, business, and industry. It takes, therefore, from both history and sociology the things which are of interest to it; namely, those things which have to do with industrial development. The facts and values which it studies are not *all* of historical and social life, but are rather economic facts and values, which are differentiated from the general social by having to do with the development of the material life. It is practically the same, of course, with political science or the science of the state and government. It pays attention again to but one particular line of facts, although it aims at universal generalizations regarding these.

To sociology is left the more general and universal aspects of the social life, such as those which concern the fundamentals of civilization, as traditions, customs, the relations of institutions, their origin, development, and functioning, the relations of social groups, their origin, development, and functioning, the social mind, public opinion, the mechanism of social inter-communication and of social change. All of these sociology deals with *in the most general way*, utilizing concrete historical facts either as an inductive basis for the building up of universal principles or as illustrating the working of such principles.

When it comes to a still more remote social study, such as cultural or social anthropology, it is even more obvious that there is little difference between the cultural anthropology of one people in the same general stage of civilization and of another people. There might be some things to distinguish at times

the sociology of the people of the United States from the sociology of the people of Canada, but there would be practically nothing to distinguish the cultural anthropology of the Canadian people from those of the United States. Indeed, it seems absurd at once to attempt any such distinction. We may define cultural or social anthropology as the science of social and cultural origins. As such, it deals with matters so remote from the present, mainly in prehistoric times, that the cultural anthropology of all the European peoples is practically the same. On the other hand, the cultural anthropology of the American Indians in Canada might possibly differ considerably from the cultural anthropology of European countries. It might be held, for example, that the culture of the Canadian Indian tribe showed certain deviations from the normal line of cultural development (such, for example, as cannibalism), which never were conspicuous cultural elements in the development of the European peoples.

Such a science of social origins would have little to do with the actual concrete history of the people. But, on the other hand, it would be invaluable for the *interpretation* of a people's life. It would give a background and help in the understanding of the whole course of human history, and so of the history of any particular people. It would give not only a general idea of where a people were located in their social and cultural evolution, but it would also show the existence of many survivals from very primitive times in existing social life. All of this, of course, is equal to saying that cultural anthropology must be in one sense more the starting point for sociology than of concrete written history. The general theory of social origins illuminates the whole course and theory of social evolution and even of existing social conditions. Sociology is, therefore, more closely related to cultural anthropology than is history. Indeed, it is impossible to say where cultural anthropology leaves off and sociology begins. It is probably best, however, to regard cultural anthropology like economics, as a specialism growing out of sociology—namely, the specialism which deals with social origins.

But it is not possible to regard written history as a specialism growing out of sociology. On the contrary, like sociology, it is a study which deals conceivably with everything that has occurred in human society from the earliest beginnings until now. It is evident that history and sociology are sciences of a different order. History belongs to the order of studies which we may call "descriptive." It is concrete and it does not aim at the generalization of laws and principles, not at least *as history*; but it does aim at the mental reconstruction of the past—at furnishing a faithful picture and understanding of past events, conditions, and institutions. Sociology, on the other hand, belongs to the class of studies which we call pure, or theoretical. It is abstract and aims at universal generalizations which may be called laws or principles. It does not aim to give a mental picture of social reality, but rather to give an understanding of the technique or mechanism of

social processes. Since historical processes are social processes, it illuminates these as well as existing social processes.

All modern science, however, is essentially inductive in spirit; that is, it proceeds from facts to theory rather than from theory to facts, from particulars to universals rather than from universals to particulars. Where, then, shall sociology get its facts? Manifestly from three sources: first, from anthropology and ethnology, both physical and cultural. The facts which anthropology has gathered regarding the physique, the social life, and the institutions of uncivilized peoples are of unique value to sociology because, with the general theory of organic evolution, it gives him a background and a starting point for social evolution. The second source of facts for sociology is written history. These facts enable one to see with a high degree of accuracy the actual work of social development among certain peoples for a limited period of time. Where the history of the people is full and all-sided, rather than unilateral, and where it is reliable, it affords sociology a mine of facts which are invaluable, and *it helps more than any other auxiliary study to keep sociology inductive, "with both feet upon the ground,"* so to speak. A third source of facts for sociology, however, is the observation and collection of facts regarding existing communities. We may conveniently call such observation and colligation of social facts regarding existing societies "social surveys." The facts which come from making social surveys, like historical facts, are exceedingly valuable for helping to make and keep sociology inductive. Moreover, in accordance with the general scientific principle that the scientific value of a fact is usually in proportion to its nearness to an observer, the facts furnished by the survey method are of great value to the sociologists, and indeed to all scientific students of social conditions of any sort.

Hence, we may roughly say that sociology gets its facts from anthropological material, from historical material, and from "social survey" material. On the whole, the historical material is perhaps at the present time more abundant and better verified than the other two classes of materials. The dependence of the sociologist upon the historian must be therefore very great. Auguste Comte, the founder of sociology, insisted that the historical method must be the peculiar method of sociology and of all the social studies. In his day, of course, the anthropological method and the social survey method were not well developed. It still remains true, however, that even yet the main reliance of the sociologist must be upon written history; that is, upon the work of the historian.

To use again the illustration with which we started—namely, the sociology of the people of the United States: Surely, if one should attempt to construct a sociology of the people of the United States simply upon census returns and the returns of the surveys of local communities, the basis would be very inadequate. It would be still more inadequate, of course, if only the data of the physical and cul-

tural anthropology of the people of the United States were used. After all, it is the written history of the people of the United States which alone makes possible anything like an adequate scientific treatment of their social problems, whether these problems be dealt with in sociology, political science, or economics. For the present, therefore, at least, *scientifically written history seems to be the great desideratum of all the theoretical social studies.*

This may be further illustrated if we take some special institution or group like the family for scientific study. The sociology of the family will utilize, of course, anthropological material, on the one hand, and statistical and demographical material, on the other. But, after all, the written history of the family furnishes on the whole the most valuable source of facts which we have regarding the family as an institution. We see again from this illustration, too, the plain distinction between history and sociology. The history of the family since written records began covers only a part of the facts which the sociologist wishes to know, though it may be they are the most valuable facts. The sociology of the family in terms of scientific law and principle is obviously, too, something very different from the history of the family.

At this point it will be convenient to point out that there is something else besides history which must be utilized as a background for the theoretical social studies, and that is biology and psychology. These antecedent sciences are so important in furnishing principles which may be taken from them deductively and utilized to interpret social facts that the tendency has been to overemphasize them in such theoretical studies as sociology and economics. Just at the present time, however, the limitations of an exclusively psychological method in those studies are beginning to be perceived and emphasized. There is now a reaction, in sociology, at least, in favor of a more extensive use of the historical method. The limitations of the method of psychological analysis are now so clearly perceived by some sociologists that there is a tendency to discredit the psychological method altogether. This is most pronounced among the extreme "objectivists" in sociology, but even many sociologists who would not call themselves objectivists would now throw the emphasis upon the historical method.

Certainly we may agree that sociology cannot content itself with being merely an illustrated social psychology; it must also be, at least, in its final development, analyzed and compared history. But is there any such antagonism between the historical method and the psychological method as the partisans of each would seem to imply? Rather, it would seem that these two methods supplement one another and naturally go along together. I think we may rightly say that while sociology without history would be empty, without psychology it would be blind. We must understand the fundamental principles of human nature, in other words, in order to understand either history or social organization and evolution.

A too exclusive use of the method of psychological analysis in the social sciences, however, is bound to lead to many errors; for the human mind, as we know it, is itself very largely an historical product. The mind of the individual, in other words, is created very largely by the historic social tradition into which it is born. History, therefore, shows us even better than psychology the motives in concrete human behavior. From this point of view psychology, of course, becomes dependent upon history, or at least upon an understanding of the historical environment in which the individual lives and moves and has his being. To study human institutions from an exclusively psychological standpoint is, therefore, a grievous blunder. Human institutions are historical even more than they are psychological products, and, to be understood, their concrete historical development must be known.

The historian, however, is himself becoming more and more psychological in his attempts to delineate past events, conditions, and institutions. History and psychology should work hand in hand at the task of understanding the complex of our civilization. This they are doing more and more. But the psychology which the historian finds to be of most use is, after all, the same psychology which the sociologist finds to be of most use; namely, the psychology of collective behavior or "social psychology." But collective behavior, like individual behavior, is rooted in historical circumstances. Social psychology may, of course, be regarded as a part either of sociology or of psychology, but, in either case, it is dependent upon concrete history.

Hence, we come to the conclusion, which might have been foreseen at the beginning, that all social studies or social sciences are interdependent both in their content and methods. If sociologists should become more historically minded, historians have equal need of becoming more sociologically minded. This the most progressive historians are rapidly doing. The best work in the field of history at the present time, in my opinion, closely approaches what might be called illustrated sociology. Illustrated psychology doubtless it is also, but *in so far as it deals with groups rather than with individuals, it is sociological rather than psychological*. Individualistic history is, I believe, past or passing, and the future of history seems to be as a social study.

I have already illustrated the difference in content between sociology and history by contrasting the *sociology* of the people of the United States with the *history* of the people of the United States. It remains only to say a few words about present tendencies in sociology on the side of both content and method.

The most pronounced tendencies of present-day sociology are: (1) To stress the importance of the mental side of social life and so the close interdependence of psychology and sociology; (2) to overcome "particularism" by an organic, or synthetic, view of the social life; (3) to develop a composite method which shall synthesize all minor methods of social research and investigation.

(1) Earlier sociologists often strove to assimilate the methods of sociology to those of physical science. Carrying out this idea a number of recent sociologists have championed what is known as "objectivism" in sociology—the study of the behavior of man and of groups without any reference to their subjective mental processes. Objectivism has, however, made but little progress in sociology, as it is generally recognized that the type of adaptation of human society is mental. Mental processes, especially mental inter-stimulation and response, largely constitute "the social process." Especially have the "mores," that is, the sanctioned standards of groups, come to be recognized as the chief determiners not only of group behavior, but also of the social behavior of individuals. Thus *sociology and social psychology in many of their parts have become practically indistinguishable*. This is shown particularly in the sociological writings of such men as Sumner, Giddings, Ross, Cooley, Hobhouse, and Wallas.

(2) Auguste Comte, the founder of sociology, stressed the organic, synthetic view of human relations, but many of his successors developed what we may call particularistic or unilateral views of the social life. Thus sociology as well as history has had its schools of geographical, biological, economic, and ideological determinists. The most common of these particularistic schools has been that of the economic determinists, whose dominantly economic philosophy of the social life has furnished, as is well known, the basis for the revolutionary propaganda of Marxian socialism. While sociological particularism still holds sway in popular beliefs, and even divides men into great antagonistic parties, it has now little standing among sociologists of scientific reputation. The tendency in sociology is now to replace these various particularisms by an organic view which synthesizes the elements of value in each. Thus scientific sociology is gradually attaining to a balanced view of the social life, and so no longer lends itself readily to the social fadist or revolutionist. It will be greatly helped in this, of course, if historians also can put an end to particularistic or unilateral history and replace such history by an organic view of the historical process.

(3) Accompanying these tendencies of recent sociology to escape from particularism has been a demand for a composite method which shall synthesize all inductive methods of research, such as the anthropological, the historical, the statistical, and the psychological. While such a method has not yet been perfected for sociology and the theoretical social studies, they more and more make use of the insight into processes of social origin and development which anthropology and history afford.

Some such composite inductive method covering the whole social life of humanity must manifestly be the instrument which sociology must employ to perfect itself, and scientific sociologists increasingly strive to employ such a method.

In conclusion, the very close relation not only in logical theory, but in practical work of all the social

studies, including history, and the dependence of all of these upon the work of the scientific historian have been demonstrated. It is to be hoped that the present decade will witness less bickering between the students of the social studies and a closer drawing together of them in their work. Co-operation, the sociologists believe, is the keyword to social progress in general. May it not also be the keyword to progress in the social studies?

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5. If the test is given in your school, help to make the conduct of it as efficient as you can. The information secured by it will certainly be helpful to us all.
6. If you teach in an elementary school, send a bare outline of the six or eight year course in history and civics; and then write as fully as you can on the working of the course, with such recommendations for change as you think advisable.
7. If you are a college professor comment on the results of high school teaching of history as shown by pupils in your class; and, if you are interested in this matter, make suggestions as to college entrance requirements in history and the other social studies.

A Project Method of Teaching History

BY PROFESSOR DONALD L. McMURRY, UNIVERSITY OF IOWA.

It is not the intention of the writer of this paper to attempt any definition of the proper pedagogical use of the term *project*. The intention is to describe a method of selecting, organizing, and presenting historical information in a manner that will convey vital ideas to elementary or secondary students—a method which seems to contain much promise of usefulness. It is hardly susceptible to any definition which is both brief and comprehensible. Consequently, it must be described at some length. The word *project* is as good a term to apply to it as any, but it is the substance of the thing itself rather than the nomenclature that is the important matter.

In order to evaluate the work that we do in our history classes it is worth while to make a brief inquiry into the purposes of the study of history in the schools, and to examine the extent to which we seem to be attaining our objectives.

A great many reasons have been assigned to justify the study of history. Some of the more important are that a knowledge of past development helps to explain the present and perhaps shows the tendencies of the future; that the study of how men thought and acted in the past increases one's knowledge of human nature and of the operation of human forces; that the result is to extend the experience of the individual to include something of the experiences of the nation or of the race as well as his own, thus enlightening his understanding of how things came to be as they are and to help determine his actions as a social being and as a citizen, and so on.

History is commonly studied in schools with the aid of textbooks. These books are ordinarily summaries of the events and developments in the history of a country or a period, which historians consider most important. There are so many important things to be said about any of the fields covered in standard texts that the statements of essentials are necessarily concise and condensed. They may mean much to one who is already familiar with the subject, but they frequently seem to mean little to the elementary student who reads them without knowing what they are about, and they therefore need much explanation to make them intelligible to those for whose use they are intended. The whole trouble is well summed up by the editor of a case book in constitutional law, arguing for the case method of legal instruction. Textbooks in law, he says, are summaries; a summary is always based upon a great deal of information, and without that previous information the summary is unintelligible. Therefore, he would present cases upon which the principles of law are based before stating the principles in abstract form. The project method is, in a sense, a case method of studying history.

An illustration will show the nature of the difficulty. Suppose that a college textbook should make

a statement like the following: "The first bank of the United States was chartered in 1791. It had a capital stock of \$10,000,000, one-fifth owned by the government, which appointed one-fifth of the directors. The bank was to act as the government's fiscal agent." These sentences might be full of meaning to the man who wrote them, but inquiry in classes of university freshmen who read such statements as these reveals that a large part of the students have no definite idea of the nature and functions of a bank beyond the fact that it is the place where you deposit your money and get your check book; they do not know what capital stock is or what directors are, and they are by no means clear as to what "fiscal agent" means. They have not the previous information necessary to make sense out of the summary. It is not at all clear that the memorizing of such a summary does much to enlighten the student in his understanding of past or present banking operations or of anything else.

The tendency of textbook writers to mention important things or persons when there is not room to describe or explain them is illustrated by the treatment of the constitutional convention of 1787 in a well-known text published twenty-five years ago. In the description of the convention when it met, twenty-one members are mentioned by name. Aside from the facts that they are classified by states and that the four from one state are described as "able and experienced men," there are only three cases in which anything is told about them, these three receiving from nine to thirteen words apiece. In the discussion of the work of the convention only nine of the twenty-one are mentioned as having done anything in particular, and in the whole chapter on the period from 1783 to 1789, only two of the others are shown to have done anything except to be among those "also present" at the convention. The index to the book is very brief and incomplete, but even so, it is rather significant that eleven of the twenty-one do not appear in it at all.

These are extreme cases, but most elementary and secondary textbook writers are forced to commit faults of this kind all too frequently, because they have so much ground to cover in a limited number of pages. The tendency of the best recent texts is to mention fewer things and to tell more about the things mentioned—a step in the right direction. But so long as they try to cover the whole history of the United States, or of any of the other standard fields, in a single brief book, it is hard to see how this difficulty can be avoided entirely.

The student learns nothing of human nature or experience from a list of names, but he might learn much from an extensive study of some of the men they represent. The brief statements about the bank add little to his understanding of banking operations

unless accompanied by lengthy explanations which many teachers are hardly competent to give. Inadequacy in the treatment of the things that are studied results in failure to realize the objects which are intended to be accomplished by historical studies. Thus, there is danger of accomplishing too little by trying to do too much.

It may be said that a good teacher can explain and illuminate the dry pages of the text and make the course interesting and valuable in spite of the book, and that readings outside of the textbook can obviate many of its disadvantages. This is surely true in some cases, and, it is to be hoped, in a great many. But taking grade school and high school libraries as they are and as they are likely to be for some years to come, and realizing that there probably remains something of the tendency to assume that the football coach or the domestic science teacher or anybody else can teach the extra history sections with the aid of a textbook, there is reason to believe that the most practicable way to improve history teaching quickly is to furnish textbooks that contain the information necessary to enable them to be understood. Whether improvement is to be obtained by the explanations of the teacher or by additional readings or by the expansion of the textbook, the intensiveness of treatment must be obtained at the sacrifice of completeness in the outline.

Students in the intermediate and grammar grades, and perhaps those in the high school as well, are hardly capable, in the time allotted to the study of history, of getting any real understanding of all or most of the important developments in any extensive field. The principal justification that remains for an outline course, therefore, seems to be based upon the theory that the essential dates and facts are to be learned for future reference, to give a framework to which historical ideas may be attached when, if ever, they come to be understood. But these unrelated facts are easily forgotten; the idea that the child's mind is a reservoir that is to be filled up with facts that are to be retained until there is a use for them seems to have been pretty well exploded. The course in desiccated "essentials," therefore, seems to be based upon a pedagogical theory that is obsolete.

Assuming for the purpose of argument that there is a certain amount of truth in the foregoing statements, the thing to do is to stop trying to accomplish the impossible, to give up the attempt to try to teach outlines of all of the important developments in extensive fields of history, and to teach some things intensively enough so that the student can grasp them. The alternatives to the comprehensive courses are the intensive study of brief periods, or the study of selected topics ranging over larger fields. The second of these alternatives, which seems to be coming into rather general use, is probably the best solution of the problem.

In selecting and evaluating the topics to be used for intensive treatment, two kinds of qualities are to be considered. First, there is the type study idea. A type study involves the concrete and extensive

exposition of a typical case which furnishes the key to a group of phenomena. The detailed study of a New England town of the seventeenth or eighteenth century, which explains the origin of the settlement, the town meeting, the congregation, the land system and the system of agriculture, and the mode of living and the character of the inhabitants, would furnish such a key to the understanding of a great part of the characteristics of the New England colonies. Ideas are more readily grasped through concrete illustration, and this study alone would probably do more to enlighten the students than would a large amount of generalization. But there is a distinct limitation to the results that can be obtained in this way. The trouble with this study is that no two towns are alike and that no one is absolutely typical: there are important variations from the type. The second stage of the development of the type study is intended to meet this objection. It is a series of comparisons, which points out the significant respects in which the town studied varies from the average or in which other towns vary from the type.

Many of the phenomena that we are accustomed to study in history courses can be well treated by the type study method. But this method has its dangers if carried too far. Many of our most significant developments are sufficiently unique so that any attempt to make type studies out of them involves distortion of the truth, or at least overdrawn comparisons. In the second place, therefore, it is in some cases desirable to include topics which have enough intrinsic importance to justify their inclusion in the course, whether they are typical of anything else or not. The political reconstruction of the Southern States after the Civil War is a matter of sufficient consequence in our national development to make it worthy of study on its own account. Although many phases of this subject suggest comparisons with other developments before or since, it would probably be straining a point to call it a type.

The ideal situation appears in the case of a topic which has both great intrinsic importance and the typical qualities which enable it to be used as a basis for the interpretation of other important facts. Hamilton's financial measures, for instance, were consequential enough to deserve considerable attention in any outline history of the United States. Some of them, as the assumption of state debts, had a significance that was mainly temporary and peculiar to that time. But an understanding of what his scheme for the funding of the debt really meant helps to interpret later cases of funding operations and makes possible a more intelligent reading of present-day newspapers. A study of the Bank of the United States, which shows in detail what it was expected to accomplish and how it actually worked, ought to help interpret later developments in banking and to give a much better understanding of the subject than most high school graduates now seem to possess. The Erie canal makes an excellent study in a certain type of transportation. It involves a study of the conditions that led to the demand for better transportation between East and West; the geographical

factors involved; De Witt Clinton's project for a canal through New York; the financial problem of raising the money; the problems of construction, water supply, etc., and the effects of the completed canal upon commerce and industry, upon the West, and upon the growth of New York City. Such a study will not only illuminate certain significant facts in the development of the country, but will serve as a basis for the understanding of a very important type of transportation. A series of comparisons can expand the type into a general study of transportation by canal, including such important examples as the canal around Niagara Falls, the Panama Canal, and the proposed St. Lawrence waterway.

Each of the examples that has been given was, in the ordinary sense of the word, a *project* in real life, involving purposeful planning based upon actual conditions that presented problems for solution. This is the sort of thing that ought to arouse interest and mental activity on the part of the students.

The proper presentation of the project to students involves several successive steps. The first is the presentation and study of the conditions from which the problems to be solved arise. Practical problems in real life do not ordinarily grow out of thin air. They develop out of practical conditions. A study of the need of the western farmers for a market for their agricultural products, of the absence of a sufficient market in their own region, and of the resulting demand for better transportation facilities to the more populous East, are conditions which lead students to suggest means of solution, including the canal. In putting this material before the students the prime essentials are concreteness and detail, with enough facts and illustrations to make clear the ideas intended to be conveyed. Summary and abstract statements should so far as possible be avoided before the facts upon which they are based have been presented and considered.

The second stage is the study of the development of the project out of these conditions, and of the steps toward its actual accomplishment. In this study, again, there is need for concreteness and detail. To study the construction of the Erie Canal without learning how a canal lock works leaves the study incomplete. A diagram or a model is desirable to put the subject clearly before the class. This may seem like an insignificant detail, but it certainly does more to enable the student to understand certain things in the world today than do the frequently mentioned facts that Jefferson wore slippers run down at the heel and that there was a noticeable rotundity where Charlemagne's waistline ought to have been. These details, in the aggregate, give reality to a situation in former times and help to place the project in what Professor Stevenson calls its life setting.

Throughout these first two stages the students are continually confronted with problems of greater or less magnitude, from the main problem of transportation between East and West that confronted De Witt Clinton and his contemporaries, or of the restoration of public credit that confronted Hamil-

ton, down to those that related to the details of the construction of the canal or the way in which the assumption of state debts became associated with the location of the national capital. These problems to be worked upon by the students arise naturally out of the conditions that they study. They confront the students as they confronted the men who, in times past, worked out the projects in their real life setting. After working upon these problems the students can learn how they were solved in actual fact. This project method, therefore, may be presented so as to involve a problem-solving method at almost every turn.

A third stage in the development of the project is the study of the results of the solution that was actually worked out. Finally, if the project is a type study, a series of comparisons can expand the knowledge of the individual case to include a knowledge of the group of cases of which this one has been taken as the example.

At every stage in the development of the project it is necessary to put the student in possession of a great deal of information. This can be done after a fashion by the assignment of readings in standard historical works such as are to be found in libraries of moderate size. When proper readings are lacking, or when those available need to be supplemented, the teacher can present the material orally. To suggest lectures and examinations to intermediate or grammar grade students, or even in high school classes, would no doubt be anathema to many educators, but good results have been obtained when teachers told pupils what they needed to know and then quizzed them to find out whether they knew it and understood it.

This can be done effectively only by the teacher who has collected, selected, and organized material, and who has thought out the development of the project in all of its bearings. This is no easy task. It is one which often requires much the same sort of painstaking research that is necessary for the writing of a scholarly historical monograph, combined with the ability to select and present the results of the investigation in a manner that will be effective with students of the grade for which the project is intended. Moreover, the materials for such a piece of work are often not to be found in an ordinary small library. For example, the study of a typical New England town, or of a typical Virginia plantation of the tidewater region, would make an excellent type study project. But the person who works up these subjects must, if he is to avoid serious errors, know enough about New England towns and Virginia plantations to distinguish between those characteristics of the cases studied which are typical and those which are exceptional. A satisfactory description of a particular town or plantation is hard to find. Books on colonial history have much to say about general characteristics, but the detailed description of the concrete illustration which makes the ideal type study is lacking and recourse must be had to an extensive examination of the sources. The comparisons which constitute the last stage of the

type study must be based upon an extensive knowledge of a broad field or they will probably be wrong. The busy teacher, laboring under a heavy schedule of instruction, hardly has the time to work out projects as fast as he can teach them, even if he is so fortunate as to have the requisite ability, training, and materials. It is a job for a double-barrelled specialist, one who is trained in methods of historical investigation and who knows enough about instruction in the elementary or secondary schools to be able to write for the edification of the students there, or, in the absence of such a rare bird, by collaboration of specialists in these two fields.

All this sounds discouraging, but the case is not always so desperate. There are many satisfactory projects for which materials are more available. There are plenty of readings, for instance, upon such subjects as the federal convention of 1787, Hamilton's financial schemes, or the reconstruction of the Southern States. But even if this were true in all cases, it would be as unreasonable to expect the

average teacher to work up his topics as he goes as to expect him, in the course of his year's work, to write an ordinary outline textbook from a library that contained none. This is the greatest obstacle in the way of giving the project method a fair trial on a large scale, in the hands of average teachers, and until such a trial is made it is hard to tell what possibilities an extensive use of this method may develop. Before teaching by projects can compete with the more conventional courses on the basis of its merits and without handicaps, some one must work out enough studies adapted to this use to make up the content of a course. In the absence of project textbooks, perhaps the best method of attack for the progressive teacher who is willing to give the thing a trial is to specialize upon some of the topics included in standard textbooks which are suitable for this kind of treatment, and see how much can be done with the materials available, thus combining the outline course with the intensive treatment of a few of the most important parts of it.

The Use of Practice Tests in the Teaching of the Social Sciences

BY W. C. KIMMEL, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL.

During the past decade the testing movement has grown by leaps and bounds. Emphasis has been placed largely, however, upon the development of intelligence tests and tests in certain fields most readily adapted to their construction. The purely content subjects have not apparently proved fruitful in these endeavors. One searches through the literature in the social sciences without finding more than a small number of standardized history tests, and, so far as the writer has been able to ascertain, no standardized tests in the social sciences other than history.

That relatively few standardized tests in the social sciences have been developed may presumably be accounted for in a brief review of several deterrent factors. The increased demand for more adequate training in citizenship, which followed in the wake of the recent war, has resulted in the wide introduction of new types of courses. Content materials must be developed, and library facilities and other material provided. The reports of several committees have shifted the points of emphasis and the relative values to be derived from the study of various types of subject matter. That there is a dearth of adequately trained teachers in the social sciences is indicated by the fact that teachers of Latin and German, temporarily without classes, have been drafted into teaching community civics in not a few of our larger cities. Probably the most important problem—that of the redirection and scientific determination of objectives—has received little or no attention. Since the classroom teacher has to face a multitude of problems, such as those enumerated, one might reasonably question the advisability of a testing program.

The conventional type of examination has been abolished in our more progressive high schools, but the average teacher in the social sciences has nothing to take its place, and has been proceeding more or less blindly with some slight confidence based largely on educational faith. Since practical economy in instruction in the social sciences demands a more objective measurement of the results which are obtained a possible solution may be worked out through the construction and use of practice tests. Such tests have been used by the writer for some years in teaching courses in social science. During the past school year a series of practice tests has been devised for use in teaching the Community Life English courses in the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago.

The Community Life English courses¹ are required of all pupils in the earlier years of the high school. Each course is composed of five units or blocks of subject matter, although any class covers only so many of the units as can be thoroughly mastered during the time devoted to the course—one semester. On the content side, these courses furnish an introduction to the study of the institutions of which the pupil is a member, together with a survey of some of the more important problems of the community. Thus the courses serve as the introductory part of the social science curriculum. In addition, they provide the content background and furnish topics for oral and written composition. Every pupil gives a floor-talk and writes at least one theme on each unit, together with other written work. Ample opportunity is provided for the voluntary development of a wide range of reading interests through the use of a large number of books of all types.

All of the books provided are related to the content materials of the different units.

The technique of instruction used in the social sciences² has as one of its essential features a long direct-study period for each unit. During this period pupils study the assignments in the textbooks and supplementary study references. After the directed-study period has progressed two or three weeks and the pupils give evidences of having mastered the content the practice tests are given. To date the tests have been developed largely for use in the second course, Community Life English II. While the tests are still in tentative form, the following description of their development and use is offered at this time with the hope that the procedure outlined may be suggestive to others engaged in similar work.

GUIDING PRINCIPLES IN FORMULATION AND USE OF TESTS.

The construction of practice tests for use in the courses was approached through the use of the trial-and-error method; that is, the pupils were given different types of tests, which involved different ranges of ability and varied numbers of test items. During the preliminary testing procedure the following principles were set up for the guidance of the instructor in the construction of the tests:

1. Practice tests should be designed to test pupil's mastery of the minimal essentials of each unit of the course.

2. Practice tests should measure pupil's mastery of content materials from as many different angles as possible.

3. The value of any practice test depends upon its usefulness in measuring pupil's mastery of content materials in a different manner from that provided by any other practice test.

4. Every practice test must be made as "fool-proof" as possible in order to avoid wrong connotation, wrong point of view, or wrong interpretation of meaning by pupils.

A testing program must always be determined, and, to some extent, modified by the educational policies of the school, the technique of instruction used, and the relative mental level of the pupils for whom the tests are intended. Certain preliminary experimentation always furnishes data which may be used to advantage in guiding the instructor in the improvement not only of the tests, but of the technique of administering them. The use of almost any type of test is practically always certain to bring to light many new problems and unforeseen obstacles. In the light of the factors enumerated the following rules were formulated for guidance in the administration of the tests:

1. The major purpose of the classroom in a laboratory school lies in its position as a laboratory. This conception implies accurate testing of the results attained by pupils.

2. The legitimate use of tests is that of furnishing illuminative guidance to the instructor; it is not the basis of marks of pupils.

3. The results gained through testing in their immediate aspects are checks of pupil's mastery of the materials of instruction; but, in the final analysis, these results are tests of the instructor's ability in the presentation of content materials and of his ability in directing pupils in the use of those study helps which will enable them to master the materials of instruction with a minimum of time and effort.

4. Pupils must in no case regard the practice tests given in the light of conventional examinations. Inasmuch as no grades are given in the course, pupils are simply asked to do their best.

5. In giving a practice test the instructor must seek to maintain the normal classroom atmosphere. The strained and tense attitude of the pupils encountered in the conventional examination period is unnatural and defeats the chief purposes of testing.

6. It is unwise to announce the time when practice tests will be given. If the time is announced, some pupils who have retained visions and recurrent inhibitions of the examination incubus of their earlier school careers will not be in a normal state of mind when the tests are given.

One implication of the above statements seems important enough to justify consideration at this point. It can be best illustrated by an incident which happened in a school with which the writer is acquainted. An instructor was speaking somewhat as follows: "Tomorrow we will have a true-false examination. The total number of points necessary to secure a perfect score is 60. All pupils who make a score of less than 54 points will be flunked." It is this sort of situation which gives plenty of opportunity for those opposed to any use of tests to personally indict the whole testing movement. This incident, furthermore, indicates that the instructor in question failed to secure the best possible results, because he threatened his pupils rather than solicited their co-operation; he also failed to appreciate the fact that there was any difference between the conventional examination and his tests.

The principles stated herein seek to eliminate the older, typical situation where the teacher places entire responsibility for obtaining good results in examinations upon the pupils, regardless of the character of the instruction. The burden of proof for gaining results must always rest upon the instructor, and the writer is firmly convinced that more introspection on the part of all of us with regard to processes and methods, together with less extended observations and criticisms of the efforts and shortcomings of our pupils, would bring more beneficial results. In short, the whole point of view in the testing procedure should be that of more careful evaluation of certain types of subject matter in terms of pupil reactions, of the refinement of technique in the administration of tests, and the careful tabulation and study of the results obtained.

TYPES OF TESTS.

Five types of tests were devised for use with each unit of the course: (1) true-false test, (2) best-answer tests, (3) completion test, (4) association

tests, and (5) application test. Each type of test is intended to approach the materials of the unit from a different aspect and with a different aim for its use. A brief description of the purpose and construction as well as method of scoring and use of each type of test follows:

The true-false test was devised in so far as possible to conform with the suggestions offered by McCall.³ The number of test items used in the test is thirty; these items are arranged in chance order. The test is informational in character, the aim being to discover to what extent pupils have mastered the general factual materials of the unit, including the materials in the supplementary study references. The true-false test is usually given as the first test in the series, due to the fact that it is used for the purpose of discovering the amount of factual materials which pupils have assimilated. Pupils must first have a command of the important facts of the unit before they can use these facts in the more advanced exercises. If the average score of a given class is low, the usual procedure is to require more thorough study before proceeding further in the work of the unit. The pupil's score for the true-false test is computed by subtracting two times the number of test items marked incorrectly from the total number of test items. Examples of the true-false test for the unit, "The Handicapped," are:

"Solitary confinement is no longer favored as a means of punishment.

"The indeterminate sentence has proved a comparatively useless method of punishment.

"The 'probationer' usually becomes a good citizen.

"Probably the most important reform in dealing with law-breakers is the juvenile court.

"Education is accomplishing practically nothing for inmates of reformatories."

The best-answer test was devised for the purpose of finding out whether or not the pupils have been able to evaluate materials in such a manner as to gain the true social point of view concerning the more important elements of the unit. While the pupils need a wide range of factual information in order to evaluate the statements used, they further need to exercise judgment in determining the item which completes the idea according to the best social attitudes of the day. It is presumed that the mental processes involved in arriving at correct items involve observation, familiarity with concepts and principles, and critical evaluation. The following rules were formulated for guidance in the development of the best-answer test:

1. Aim to use only alternative items which will bring out the true social point of view on the major elements of the unit.

2. In so far as possible, avoid the use of debatable alternatives in such a way that either of two alternatives might be considered partially correct.

3. Avoid the inclusion of alternatives which are obviously incorrect in any test item; that is, such alternatives as would be immediately marked incorrect by pupils who have not studied the materials of the unit.

4. Avoid the use of any alternatives which might necessarily confuse pupils because of ambiguity of phraseology.

5. Avoid the use of negative alternative items.

The best-answer test is made up of incomplete statements, each of which is followed by four alternative items. One of these items is regarded as the correct item to complete the meaning of the statement in agreement with the best thought of the day on the particular issue. Fifteen statements are included in the test for each unit. This test is usually given following the true-false test, although as a general practice only one test is given during one class hour. The pupil's score is obtained by subtracting the number of test items marked incorrectly from the total number of items included in the test. Examples of test items from the best-answer test for the unit, "Industry," are:

"The most encouraging tendency in industry in recent years is:

- a) the less frequent occurrence of industrial warfare,
- b) the disposition on the part of labor unions to enforce legal decisions,
- c) increased prosperity,
- d) the growing recognition of the fact that all can benefit only through co-operation."

"A closed shop is one in which:

- a) only union laborers are employed,
- b) only members of certain unions are given work,
- c) everyone who applies is given work,
- d) workers are chosen scientifically on basis of tests given by the personnel department."

The completion test was designed to require a more exhaustive informational and factual background of content materials on the part of pupils than that provided for in the true-false test. This test, as finally developed, includes two types of test items: the sentence type and the completion-statement type. The sentence type is the ordinary sentence with two important words deleted, with the aim of ascertaining whether the pupils have acquired such a command of the ideas involved in the content that they will be able to fill in words so as to give a meaning not incongruous with the content of the unit. In the completion-statement type the pupils, in order to complete the statement satisfactorily, must have at their command the several items of information required. Furthermore, the ideas must be phrased in a definite, coherent manner, with the use of a limited number of words. The actual number of items written correctly constitutes the score for this test. As a total of fifteen examples is used in this test, the perfect score is thirty points. Some of the test items included in the completion test for the unit, "The Handicapped," are:

"Some of the attempts to give prisoners more humane treatment are:

- a)
- b)
- c)

The early schools for the deaf in the United States were supported largely by and were controlled by

Factors which have tended to increase the number of handicapped are:

- a)
- b)
- c)

The association test is a list of more or less technical words, terms, and phrases which appear for the first time in the particular unit which the pupils are studying. The reasons underlying the devising of these word tests are several in number. It has been the writer's experience that there are always some pupils in every class who have unusual difficulties, and yet according to practically all means of evaluation are capable pupils. Through conferences, careful observation, and detailed analysis of these problem cases as evidence was tabulated, the difficulties of these pupils have been found to be largely due to failure to build up associations between words and ideas; these pupils remember words and terms merely as such without identifying meaning with them in the formation of concepts. After experimenting with various kinds of devices in attempting to help pupils overcome these handicaps, the association test was devised and is now used not only with special pupils, but also with all pupils in the class, to insure, if possible, that every pupil acquires a grasp of the fundamental terminology of the unit.

Items from the association test for the unit, "Immigration," are:

Assimilation	"Three Per Cent." Law
Company store	Children of the Second Generation Colony
Padrone system	

The association test is used either following the completion test or as the first test in the series. Its position in the series depends upon the nature of the content of the unit, the personnel of the pupils in the class, and the relative amount of time available for giving the tests. If the pupils in a given class are backward in mental reactions, slow in mastering the content materials, and faltering in their interpretations of the content of the unit, the association test is given first in the series. Its use then provides an opportunity to discover the difficulties which pupils face, to clear up these difficulties, and to determine whether pupils need further study before they proceed with the other activities of the unit.

In developing a series of tests for use in classroom teaching it seems advisable to provide one test which will give pupils an opportunity to demonstrate their ability to make applications of the principles brought out in their study. The conventional oral recitation is unsatisfactory in that it often fails to meet this demand; furthermore, every teacher has had at some time the unfortunate experience of finding some pupils who could talk glibly on facts and generalize on the basis of principles, but lacked cogency in argument and versatility in the application of principles to practical problems. In an attempt to overcome juggling with facts and principles on the part

of pupils, the application test has been devised. Pupils are required to write at length on some problem, either real or hypothetical, which is formulated by the instructor.

The application test is always given last in the series because, by its nature, it forms the capstone of the series. Since pupils are required to write at length after analyzing the problem into its different elements, the time necessary to answer the problem in complete form is considerably longer than that required in the other tests. The time taken for this test is prolonged, as pupils must necessarily check through the principles developed during the directed-study period in order to think through the several principles in their application or lack of application to the particular problem at hand. In some instances, certain pupils take up the entire class hour in arriving at conclusions and writing their solutions in detail. The only satisfactory method of procedure found to date is to demonstrate before the class just how the instructor approaches the solution of the problem. The problem is divided into its elements, the implications are briefly discussed, the different principles are reviewed by way of discovering whether or not they can be applied, and the tentative conclusions and final solution are developed. Not infrequently these problems present a definite challenge to the interests of individual pupils, with the subsequent reading of large blocks of content materials in further search for correct solutions.

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RESULTS.

Lack of space does not permit a detailed tabulation of the results obtained to date in the use of practice tests.⁴ Several types of evidence can, however, be summarized, although the statements without supporting data may seem somewhat dogmatic. The use of a series of practice tests furnishes various types of data, which help to give a more adequate and more diversified conception of the difficulties which individual pupils encounter in their study. Some rather baffling problems in the diagnosis of study habits of pupils have been solved through insights into peculiar mental reactions of pupils disclosed by observations made in administering tests. Then, too, these problem cases are discovered during the first unit of the course, and, consequently, much remedial work can be done before these pupils would otherwise be discovered. The memoriter type of pupil succeeds fairly well in making a presentable score on the true-false and completion tests, but almost invariably finds difficulty in dealing with the best-answer and application tests. The pupil who lacks logical sequence in reasoning is completely at a loss in the use of the application test, while the pupil who cannot make decisions between alternative items fails in answering the best-answer test. Space does not permit citation of individual problem cases discovered in this way, but the general classes enumerated illustrate the nature of the evidence obtained. By thus keeping himself informed the instructor, during the first unit of the course, is in a position to diagnose difficulties and put into effect remedial measures. In addition to suggesting certain methods of study, the instructor has concrete evidence to place before the pupils in personal conference. The pupil is usually convinced that he needs to improve; far more convinced that when he is told that he "missed the point" of the questions in the conventional examination, and consequently receives the grade of 69 per cent. on his paper.

Classroom instruction is motivated through the use of practice tests, because pupils take a large amount of interest in the tests and the results obtained. The tests are looked forward to with enthusiasm and the usual inertia and lack of interest in examinations is eliminated. As implied heretofore the pupils regard the tests as fairly accurate checks of their mastery of the content of the unit. They also derive considerable pleasure from the co-operative task of checking each other's papers when the correct answers are read. Incidentally, the instructor is relieved of much monotonous labor through this procedure, but he should always spend this time to greater advantage in making a thorough study of the results obtained.

The series of tests furnishes a more adequate check of the mastery of content materials than is provided for in the use of the conventional examination in that more aspects of the pupil's work are measured. Tests of general information, discrimination, attitude, exhaustive information, and ability in the application of principles are included. Moreover, the attempt to differentiate between these elements in different

types of tests rather than to include all elements in one test tends to produce better results. Use of materials from the supplementary study references provides a more definite check of the ability of pupils in their mastery of the materials included therein than any of the devices with which the writer is familiar.

In brief, the use of tests in a sane and practical manner with attention to, and consideration of, the objectives of the course of study and the principles of secondary education is productive of worth-while results. Further experimentation is necessary in order to secure refinement of technique, to determine the relative merits of the different techniques employed, and to carry out a thorough investigation of the values of the several types of tests. When one may be reasonably sure of these factors, the next step would seem to be the use of results obtained in the selection of subject matter necessary for the attainment of the specific objectives of the course, as well as the more general objectives of secondary education.

¹ For complete discussion of courses, see Hill, "Opportunities for Correlation between Community Life and English," *School Review*, XXX (January-March, 1922), 24-36, 118-126, 175-186.

² See Hill, "A Course in Modern History," *Studies in Secondary Education I*, 109-115. (University of Chicago High School.)

³ McCall, *How to Measure in Education*, p. 123.

⁴ A detailed tabulation and interpretation of results will be found in my "Pupil Progress in Community Life English Measured by Tests," *Studies in Secondary Education II*, University of Chicago High School (January, 1924).

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The Social Studies in New York State

BY EDWARD P. SMITH, SUPERVISOR OF HISTORY, STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT, ALBANY, N. Y.

In the present debate over desirable adjustments between history and the other social studies in elementary and secondary schools, it may be interesting to summarize briefly the present conditions in the State of New York and the proposed future course. In a paper by Professor R. M. Tryon¹ four different types of adjustment are treated, called, respectively, the independent parallel, the alternating, the unified, and a combination of the first and third. In general, New York's course may be classed as belonging to the last type. Broadly speaking, it provides for a unified course in the first three grades, the independent parallel in the next six grades and a unified course in the last three. Commentators from outside the state have often failed to grasp this general plan, partly because they have examined only a part of the syllabi issued by New York and partly because the courses are still in process of evolution. A committee on an elementary syllabus in the social studies has been at work for some time, but its recommendations are not yet ready for publication. This article, therefore, will deal principally with the provision for the social studies in the senior high school.

The course recommended for senior high schools is a three-year sequence in world history, as follows:

- A. A general survey of the development of world civilization from the beginning to 1789. Five periods a week in tenth year.
- B. A more detailed study of world civilization, 1789 to the present. Five periods a week in the eleventh year.
- C. American history and institutions, chiefly from 1789 to the present. Five periods a week in the twelfth year.

The requirement for a state academic diploma is the completion of two of these three courses, with A and C recommended for those who take only two. The replies to a recent questionnaire show that of the 522 full four-year high schools outside New York City, 261, or exactly half, offer the three-year sequence. Of these 522 high schools, 462 are teaching course A, 270 are teaching course B, and 512 are teaching course C. The most remarkable growth here is in course B, Modern World History, which was offered in hardly any school outside New York City previous to 1920.

In addition to these courses, civics is required of all candidates for a diploma, and is usually given in the ninth year. Economics is a half-year senior elective.

A word should be said about New York City, with its thirty-two high schools. Courses B and C are given in all schools and are taken by the great majority of pupils. Course A is offered in about one-third of the schools. Economics is required of all pupils for graduation.

Another way to judge the extent to which the social studies are taken is by the enrolment figures for all

high schools of all grades, both public and private, for 1921-22, the latest year for which they are available. The total enrolment for social studies was 183,456, distributed as follows: All histories, 88,350; civics, 83,313; economics, 11,793. It is interesting to note the percentage of growth in enrolment over the previous year: All high school subjects, 10.8; all social studies, 11.6; history, 12.3; civics, 10; economics, 10.

It is natural that those who looked no deeper than the cover of the syllabus which went into effect in 1920 should be misled as to its contents, for it is called a Three-Year Course in World History. Probably the advocates of the inclusion of more civics, economics, and sociology would jump to the hasty conclusion that here was a conservative syllabus in history which gave no recognition to their claims. It is true that the committee has followed the historical order of presentation, both because they believed that to be the proper method of approach to the solution of present-day problems and also because they felt that an established subject like history had some valuable contributions to make still to a revised course of study. The committee felt that the proper way to usher in the new day was not to disregard all past efforts and clear the decks by casting overboard all previous experience. They also recognized that in spite of the desires of the reformers, the kind of social training that is going to be given to the boys and girls in the schools for the next few years will be given largely by the present generation of teachers.

It has been said that for every speech that is delivered there are four forms: First, the speech the speaker intends to make; second, the speech he actually makes; third, the speech that the papers report that he made, and fourth, the speech that the speaker thinks he made. And the last is the grandest of all. Perhaps the same is true of teaching. There is, first, the teaching the syllabus maker intends shall be done; second, the teaching that is actually done; third, the teaching that the educational magazines report is being done, and fourth, the teaching that the ardent reformers would like to see done. At all events, the history that the makers of the New York State Syllabus intended should be taught is far different from the old textbook history which overstressed political events. Perhaps it comes nearer to what Professor H. E. Barnes² has called synthetic history. "Synthetic history takes into account the sum total of human achievement. . . ." The vital question is whether the academic historians will awaken to the fact that the majority of them have dropped behind the procession and will readjust their vision of history so as to absorb these new developments, or whether they will allow them to be absorbed by psychology, economics, sociology, geography, jurisprudence, and natural science, until history becomes

like a recluse shut off from the world of real life and vital activities and perishes of atrophy. Classical studies were saved from their threatened demise by a shifting of emphasis from syntax to civilization. We have yet to discover whether history will exhibit a similar sagacity by shifting the emphasis from episodes, politics, battles, and scandals to a study of the vital processes of social development." After lamenting the lack of progress in the universities, Professor Barnes goes on: "In the normal schools and secondary schools the older approach to history is even less disturbed in its complacent slumbers." Whatever may be the condition in the colleges and normal schools, the present writer is convinced by his observation and experience that there has been real progress toward the "new history" in the high schools of New York State, especially during the last three years under the new syllabus. His experience is based upon twenty-five years' actual teaching of the social studies to high school boys and girls in various parts of the state. His observation is based upon visits to the classes in social studies in nearly 500 high schools of the state during the past three years.

As evidence that the present syllabus in World History is really of the "synthetic" type, some topics from the syllabus are here presented. In course B a more detailed study of world civilization, 1789 to the present, one of the major topics, with some sub-heads omitted, is as follows:

XII. A SURVEY OF CONTEMPORARY CIVILIZATION.

A. Political.

1. *The greatest single force in the world is the sovereign state.*
 - a. *Characteristics.*
 - b. *Classification of sovereign states.*
2. *Extension of franchise.*
 - a. *Causes of growth since the American Revolution.*
 - (1) Influence of Christianity on the conception of brotherhood.
 - (2) Influence of the French Revolution; "liberty, equality, fraternity."
 - (3) The industrial revolution.
 - (4) The various political revolutions.
 - (5) Changes growing out of the World War.
 - b. *The political emancipation of women; its results.*
 - c. *Significance of these democratic changes.*
3. *The political constitution as a foundation of the state today.*
4. *New conception of the scope and function of government.*
 - a. *The old idea of government as a mystery conducted for the benefit of the ruling class disappearing.*
 - b. *The new idea of government as a servant of the people gaining ground rapidly.*
 - (1) Grows out of mutual interdependence of individuals.
 - (2) People perform duties and secure rights through government.
 - (3) The government helps where the individual cannot help himself.

- (4) Governmental means of co-operation among individuals.

c. *To meet the great human needs today governments are confronted by many serious problems scarcely thought of formerly.*

5. *Growth of international relations.*

- a. *Widespread need for world order, world justice, and world security.*
- b. *Consciousness of necessity for world organization has already created many agencies for world government.*
 - (1) *Official agencies.*
 - (2) *Unofficial agencies.*
 - (3) *Inadequacy of the institutions already established.*
- c. *Numerous plans for furtherance of world organization.*
- d. *Effects of the World War. Refer to topic X.*

B. *Social and economic.*

1. *Rapid extension of the industrial revolution over the world.*
 - a. *States in which industry has been most highly developed.*
 - b. *States in which industry has been only partially developed.*
 - c. *Portions of the earth where industry is undeveloped.*
2. *General effects of the industrial revolution on*
 - a. *The growth of democracy, nationalism, imperialism, and internationalism.*
 - b. *The development of a spirit of co-operation between (1) employer and (2) employee.*
 - c. *Poverty and other social problems.*
 - d. *Social legislation and reforms.*
 - e. *Stimulation of discoveries and inventions.*
 - f. *Increase of world trade and commerce.*
 - g. *Educational institutions and programs.*
3. *Proposed socialistic and communistic schemes for improving organized human society.*
 - a. *The varying groups and different schemes.*
 - b. *Reasons for strength of socialism in industrial centers and its weakness elsewhere.*
 - c. *Its political effects.*
 - d. *Its social and economic influence.*
4. *Human welfare and humanitarian activities.*
 - a. *War on poverty; official and private efforts.*
 - b. *Legislation for improving the condition of the poorer classes.*
 - (1) *Hours, wages, safety appliances, compensation, pensions, etc.*
 - (2) *Sanitation, housing, insurance, education, etc.*
 - c. *Protection and education of children.*
 - d. *Care of the unfortunate and criminal classes.*
 - e. *War on disease.*
 - f. *Efforts to solve the liquor problem, immorality, etc.*
 - g. *Public and private charities and relief work.*
 - h. *International agreements to mitigate the horrors of war.*

5. The woman movement.

C. Educational.

1. *The dissemination of intelligence and enlightenment over the world one of the big problems of our age.*
 - a. Illiteracy in the various states of the world.
 - b. Agencies at work to improve conditions.
2. *Tendency toward secularization and democratization of popular education.*
 - a. Where the most progress has been made.
 - b. Work still to be done.
3. *Various kinds of educational agencies at work.*
4. *Effects of all these educational agencies on our civilization.*

D. Importance of the new science.

1. New conception of the earth's origin; the new geology; Lyell's "Geological Evidences of the Antiquity of Man."
2. The theory of evolution; biology and anthropology; Buffon and Lamarck; Charles Darwin (1809-82) and "natural selection"; Wallace; Huxley; Spencer; Vries; Haeckel; Gray and Fiske.
3. New theories of matter and power; chemistry, physics, mineralogy, and astronomy; Lavoisier; Dalton and the atomic theory; synthetic chemistry in Germany; applied chemistry; the nature of heat and light explained; the development of electricity; Galvani and Volta; Davy; Ampere and Arago; Faraday and Edison; the "Hertzian waves"; Roentgen and the X-rays; radio-activity; Curie, Joule, and Kelvin; the telescope, spectroscope and photography in astronomy.
4. The cellular theory of life; Pasteur and bacteriology.
5. The advances in medicine and surgery; the germ theory of disease; Doctor Koch and tuberculosis; antitoxins; von Behring and Park; preventive hygiene; Doctor Warren's use of ether in surgery; Lister and antiseptics; sterilization.
6. Applied science has added new processes to manufacturing and mining; improved transportation and communication; increased the comforts and conveniences of modern life in a thousand different ways and enabled man to live a happier and more useful life.
7. *The new social sciences*—economics developed by Bentham, Malthus, Ricardo, John Stuart Mill, Marx and others; sociology by Comte and Spencer; political science; philosophy and psychology; and the new history.
8. Science in the World War.

E. Religious.

In the course on American history and institutions intended for the twelfth year the major topics and pages allotted to each are as follows:

1. The Americans—a nation of immigrants. 3 pages.
2. The rise of democratic institutions in the United States. 36 pages.

3. The foreign relations of the United States. 12 pages.
4. Economic history of the United States. 20 pages.
5. Social development in the United States. 8 pages.
6. Development of our governmental system. 18 pages.
7. American ideals. 5 pages.

In the introduction to this course the following passage stresses the importance of our social and economic problems:

"In the new era of America in which we are living the problem of how best to achieve economic and social democracy is becoming increasingly important. The problems which most vex our own country and the world at large are social and economic. Few high schools have found a place for economics and sociology as separate subjects in their courses of study. We are educating in these schools an advanced class in citizenship. To send out their pupils with practically no knowledge of these subjects, without even any understanding of their underlying principles or of the technical terms used in popular discussion, is for the high schools to fail in a very important part of their mission.

"To remedy the present situation, somewhat more definite outlines in social and economic development than those of the 1910 syllabus have been given place in the present one. It is hoped that the history teachers of the state will give full weight to the considerations here presented and devote a fair share of attention to the social and economic side of our history.

"The requirements of the statute with respect to the teaching of civics in the schools of this state are to be met by a separate course in civics in either the first or the second year of the high school course; therefore, in dealing with the sixth topic of Course C, relating to the governmental development of the United States, an effort has been made to include only those topics that are of present-day vital interest to good citizenship.

"Finally, in the summary topic, 'American ideals,' the pupil should take leave of his study of the subject with the impression that the past generations of Americans have lighted the torch that is to be the guide toward our democratic destiny, that they have done noble pioneer work in partially clearing the path toward that great goal, but that there is much work still to be done by present and future generations if America is to remain true to her great ideals and develop here in this western hemisphere a perfect democracy."

In considering how far the New York State course of study represents the newer tendencies in teaching the social studies it has seemed best to let the syllabus speak for itself. Whether it may fairly be considered as a course in the new synthetic history or a unified course in the social studies is left to the reader to judge. At least, it is a step in that direction.

The war on the old political textbook history doubt-

less needed to be undertaken and still needs to be waged wherever the rote memorization of dynasties and administrations still persists. The history professors and textbook writers and teachers doubtless must share the blame for clinging too long to outworn subject matter and methods. It seems clear, however, that most of them have now taken advanced ground and admit that the zealous advocates of the newer social studies, sociology, economics, et al., have proved their right to "a place in the sun." This does not mean, however, that they are entitled to all the sunlight and that history must be "cast into outer darkness" for its sins.

In the recent battle of words it has often seemed that the contestants were not aware that they were really fighting for the same thing. If it be conceded that all the social studies, history, geography, economics, sociology, government, psychology, ethics, and whatever others there be, have their own peculiar contributions to make to the education of the modern youth, then the leading questions that remain are what space shall be allotted to each, and shall they be unified or driven tandem. So far as the senior high school is concerned most advocates agree that there should be a three-year course in the social studies, of which about two-thirds of the time shall be devoted to historic development and one-third to present-day problems.

There has been recent widespread advocacy of a one-year course in World History, one year of American History, and one year of Problems of American Democracy. In regard to the first course the experience of New York State may be interesting. When the present syllabus was issued in 1920, schools that wished were allowed to select italicized topics from courses A and B and give a one-year course in World History. In June, 1921, only 262 pupils from about 12 schools tried the state examination in this subject. After three years the option is still open, but the recent questionnaire reveals the fact that this one-year course is now being given to only 20 pupils, confined to two small schools. The recent questionnaire also asked for suggestions for the improvement of the social studies. The comment that appears most often is that course A, a general survey of world civilization from the beginning to 1789, covers too great a period of time. There are several requests that it be ended at 1700 or 1600, or even earlier. Many of the teachers use the terms "superficial," "skimming the surface," "too extensive a period." One more specific comment is: "Pupils taking ancient history formerly learned the details of the Punic wars or lists of Roman officials. The most that they now retain are vague generalizations about the movements or institutions that are still more incomprehensible to them. They are too young to grasp the significance of Greek democracy, Roman imperialism, feudalism, the Renaissance, etc." If this be true of a brief survey ending at 1789, how much more difficult to grasp the whole sweep of the development of human civilization down to the present, with its multiplicity of names and movements? So far as the teachers of New York State are concerned, they have rejected

the option of a one-year course in World History as impractical, and some of them find a course ending at 1789 too extended to be satisfactory for tenth-year pupils.

With regard to a course in the Problems of American Democracy, while there is no unity of opinion or practice on subject matter, it may be conceded that many of these problems are vital and should receive the attention of high school pupils. A somewhat careful survey of four recent textbooks on this course reveals the fact that there is no social, economic, or governmental problem of major importance in any of these books which is not contained in the New York State syllabus in American history and institutions. In a sense, therefore, a statement in the October HISTORICAL OUTLOOK,³ listing New York among the states giving such a course, was correct. It was not correct in the sense that New York is offering a segregated course in Problems.

To some of us who have given friendly consideration to the introduction of new subject matter into the course in social studies, there are at least three considerations that make us pause before adopting a separate course in Problems in the twelfth year. The first is a pretty thorough knowledge of the teachers who must give the instruction. A surprisingly large number of them are young men and women with few years of experience beyond college. Their enthusiasm and ardent sympathies are qualities that often add interest to their classroom instruction. But many of them have had little training and less experience in dealing with difficult governmental and social problems that perplex the wisest heads in the country. The fear is not so much that dangerous and unpatriotic teaching will result, as that the sense of proportion will be lost and fads and hobbies will magnify passing problems and valuable time will be lost. This tendency is very apparent in much of the present teaching of current events. It may be said that the same danger is present when problems are treated in a course in history. True, but not to the same extent. Not so much time is likely to be spent on a pet hobby when a course in history is to be covered. Also, the historical approach to a problem of itself tends toward suspension of judgment and consideration of both sides.

Another danger inherent in the course is that bad features of our present institutions will be overstressed and improvement overlooked. Much of the teaching on child labor leads to the impression that the young person who exerts himself physically is bound to end in a pile of "human junk," just as the previous teaching of the effects of alcohol led many to believe that the inevitable end was a hob-nailed liver and that classic example of bad taste in interior decoration known as a drunkard's stomach. We do not want to send out an army of youthful muckrakers continually trying to find out what is "rotten in Denmark." The very word "Problem" suggests that something is wrong.

A third danger in a segregated course in Problems is that the great contribution of history to our education will be lost sight of just when it ought to be

most stressed. The great lesson to be learned from history is development. It constantly extends backward the memory of living men and gives them a sense of perspective to aid them in forming their judgments on contemporary affairs. Whether problems are treated in a later course or not, a good course in modern history, either American or European, will lead up in its treatment to the present conditions in each line of development. Here, then, seems to be the proper place to treat the present problem, where history can shed upon it all the light that the past affords. Most of the decisions that the citizen will be called on to make in later life will be popped at him out of the exigencies of the time. He must vote for or against the city manager plan of government for his city. He must vote for or against an appropriation of fifty million dollars for the state's dependents. He must decide for or against an investment based on some insidious form of fiat money. If he has approached these problems before in their historical setting, the habit may have been formed of looking for the perspective or back-

ground. The grouping of all the great social, economic, and political problems in a separate course, with small chance to consider their previous development, is little likely to have formed such a habit, but rather the habit of "snap judgments" which we wish to avoid.

New York State has welcomed gladly the rich contributions that the newer social studies can make to history. We have preferred to incorporate them, however, with some of the tested subject matter of the past into a unified course in synthetic history, rather than to reduce all history to a rapid survey of two years and follow that by an incoherent collection of evanescent subject matter known as Problems of Democracy. In doing this, we believe that we have followed the teaching of Clio, that the best progress is made by orderly evolution.

¹ Tryon, R. M., *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XIII, 78, March, 1922.

² Barnes, H. E., *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XII, February, 1921.

³ *HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, Vol. XIV, October, 1923.

History Teaching in Massachusetts High Schools

BY JOSEPH M. MURPHY, ABINGTON, MASS., HIGH SCHOOL.

The relations which have existed between the United States and Europe have increased, rather than diminished, since the beginning of the World War. We have been gradually drawn into the complex situation existing on that continent, a condition which has taken centuries to develop, by means of the commercial, political, and financial problems arising as a result of the great conflict. Busy with the development of the vast resources of our nation and feeling apart from the then distant Europe, we maintained a disinterested attitude toward the critical state of affairs among the European nations. This feeling was not changed until, much to our surprise, we found that it was our goods, our money, and our friendship and assistance which was greatly desired by all Europe. Naturally, then, we tried to understand the people with whom we were to do business, and the American public found they were unable to arrive at a complete understanding, due to the fact that little had ever been taught them about the problems which had suddenly become theirs. They found themselves searching in an unknown field of history for facts which had never before come to their attention.

The deeds of the World War must be taught to the rising generation as surely as the Civil War was taught to the preceding. The facts of European history have become the history of the United States. Our children must receive this instruction as part of their education, and the schools of the country have begun to revise the course of study in history from the grades to the last year in the high school.

A course in the European Background of American History soon appeared in the sixth grade. This was followed by a course leading up to and including

the Revolution for the seventh grade, and in the eighth appeared a course through the World War and the Problems of Peace. This work is logical and chronological and serves as a sound basis for the work in the senior high school.

A survey of the work done in the senior high school reveals a condition which can be both criticized and commended. While it is concerned with the State of Massachusetts alone, we may suppose that similar conditions exist in many other states. It can be said at the start that the courses offered in the high schools of the Commonwealth cover a wide range, and a student who pursues the average course should, at the completion of his four years of secondary school work, have a very broad and general view of the history of the world.

The courses are planned on the old idea of progression from the past to the present. Nearly half the high schools offer Ancient History in the first year and end the course with American History in the fourth year. Some of the schools offer Ancient in the first and no other course appears on the program until the senior year. What a student thinks in regard to the sudden demise of Europe from the time of Charlemagne to the departure of Columbus is open to conjecture. Perhaps those are the "Dark Ages" he has heard about. In the second and third years, the History of Europe is considered from all angles. It is approached gradually, suddenly, abruptly, erratically, collectively and individually. Variety is the method advocated by all the leading educators of the country. The student in the history departments of Massachusetts high schools should not complain

of the monotony of his course, as the following statistics will indicate:

The State Board of Education suggests that in the first year of the high school "Community civics, with a survey of vocations and a specific study of the high school itself" be taught. In the second year, "History to 1700," followed by "European History since 1700, treated as a study of nations other than our own." The last year suggests "American History and problems of democracy." The courses follow, in a general way, the recommendations of the State Board. Each school treats the manner according to the demands of the program and of the students of the school. There has been an attempt to work in some of the latest suggestions of the Historical Committees and the many courses of study which have lately come to the front.

Since this survey was made a law was passed by the General Court of Massachusetts which reads as follows:

"There shall be taught in all public elementary and high schools in the Commonwealth courses in American history and civics, for the purpose of promoting civic service and a greater knowledge of American history and of fitting the pupils, morally and intellectually, for the duties of citizenship. All pupils attending the said schools shall be required to take one or more of the courses herein specified at some time during their attendance at said schools."

This law makes the study of American History and Civics compulsory for all students in the schools of the Commonwealth. It requires an elementary course in the grammar grades or the junior high school and an advanced course in the senior high school. As in the case of English as a requirement for entrance into the normal schools of the state, so has American History become a required subject. If the colleges of the country should class this very important subject with English it would only be a short time before American History would be universally taught in the high schools. Certainly a knowledge of the manners, customs, industries, and development of the nation should be as essential as a knowledge of the common language.

THE SURVEY.

The following survey was made in order that reasons could be given and proved for a complete change of the work in the social sciences in a junior and senior high school. At first, a few schools were appealed to, but it became apparent that the information received was not typical of the schools of the state, and the investigation was extended so as to include every secondary school in Massachusetts.

The returns were surprising. Sixty-five per cent. of the inquiries were returned and of that number only 5 per cent. could not be used due to illegibility and partial answers. The form of the questionnaire was simple, consisting of a brief note explaining the purpose of the survey and a library card on which the information was recorded. The shorter the form to be filled out, the greater the return.

INSTRUCTION

Number of different teachers 381.... per cent.
Number of full time teachers 148.... 38.84

Number of part time teachers 233.... 61.15

The time devoted to the teaching of history by the part-time instructors varies. The average school day is divided into six periods. These periods are of varying lengths, ranging from thirty minutes to an hour. The figures are based on the fractional part of the day given by the teacher to his instruction. In nearly all cases the numerator indicates the number of periods he teaches and the denominator the number of periods in the school day. Percentage based on schools reporting:

Number of teachers	Teaching (of each day)	Per cent.
50	1/6	13.12
34	2/6	8.92
11	4/6	2.88
17	5/6	4.46
32	1/2	8.39
16	1/5	4.19
7	2/5	1.83
2	3/5	.52
4	4/5	1.04
6	1/4	1.57
1	3/4	.26
13	1/7	3.41
7	2/7	1.83
3	3/7	.78
4	4/7	1.04
1	5/7	.26
1	1/8	.26
2	3/8	.52
1	1/30	.26
18	Uncertain time	4.68

It can be seen from the foregoing table that the greatest percentage of part-time instruction is given by teachers who give only one period a day to the subject. We may infer that these teachers have had this course thrust upon them by an overcrowded condition of the school. We may still further conclude that the teacher, not being in sympathy with the work, would place his least effort in that period. It is only natural to expect him to do his best within the field of his specialty. The course to which one teacher has given one-thirtieth of his time (probably one period a week) would hardly be worth the time spent upon it, unless it was a review course, and then it should be in the hands of the most competent and efficient instructor. It seems hardly probable that a teacher giving such a small part of his time during the week to work in history would produce any lasting results.

THE FIRST YEAR—COURSES.

The courses offered to the freshman classes in the state are many and varied. They indicate an effort to follow the courses of study as suggested by the Historical Committees. In some cases they follow old plans or courses; in others, the newer, and in some an attempt is made to incorporate both old and new into one. The names of the courses are given as they are listed at the respective schools. Some may mean under one name the same as a similar course listed under a different name at another school. The percentages indicate the per cent. according to the number of replies received:

Name of course	Number of schools in which it is given	Per cent.
Ancient	67	40.36
Civics	94	56.62
Domestic	1	.60

Name of course	Number of schools in which it is given	Per cent.
Early European	1	.60
European	4	2.40
English	7	4.21
General	4	2.40
Greek	8	4.81
History to 1700	4	2.40
History to 1800	1	.60
Industrial	3	1.80
Medieval	1	.60
Medieval and Modern	2	1.20
Modern	2	1.20
Roman	5	3.01
Social Science	2	1.20
United States	4	2.40
Vocations	1	.60

Civics and Ancient History lead the list by large majorities. To Ancient History could be added the Early European, European, Greek, Roman, Medieval, and History to 1700, for they closely correspond to the first-named course. The state recommends the teaching of Civics in the first year of the high school, and it can be seen from the table that more than half the schools of the Commonwealth have followed the suggestion of the Department of Education.

A list of the textbooks used would correspond in variety with the courses offered to first-year students in the high schools. A glance at the following list will show a wide range in the selection of texts. For convenience, the name of the text is omitted, that of the author being sufficient to identify his work.

THE FIRST YEAR—TEXTS.

Author	Number of schools using text	Per cent.
Ashley	4	2.40
Beard	1	.60
Botsford	4	2.40
Breasted	5	3.00
Cheyney	1	.60
Colby	1	.60
Davis	1	.60
Dole	1	.60
Dunn	47	28.20
Forman	1	.60
Guitteau	3	1.80
Hughes	27	16.20
Mace	1	.60
Magruder	1	.60
McLaughlin	1	.60
Moore	1	.60
Morey	17	10.24
Montgomery	3	1.80
Muzzey	1	.60
Myers	25	15.05
Nida	3	1.80
Palmer	1	.60
Robinson	2	1.20
Robinson and Breasted	6	3.61
Thomas	1	.60
Tufts	1	.60
Thompson	1	.60
Webster	11	6.62
West	28	14.45
Wolfson	1	.60
Zeigler and Jacquette	1	.60

These figures and courses show a rather startling array of work outlined for the first year of the high school. Throughout the state, eighteen different courses are listed for this year, and, in order that the ground may be covered, there are thirty-one different texts in use. These books are not for reference work, aside from the book used in class, but

are all in use by classes studying some one of the eighteen courses. One may be sure that the future citizens of the state shall approach all the problems which may confront them from such diversified angles that their solution will be certain.

THE SECOND YEAR—COURSES.

The work offered the sophomores is very much like that in the first year. The number of different courses is reduced from eighteen to fifteen. It is probable that what is not taken in the first year may be studied in the second, or that the courses, especially in the smaller schools, may alternate:

Name of course	Number of schools in which it is given	Per cent.
Ancient	30	18.07
Civics	11	6.62
Domestic	1	.60
Early European	2	1.20
European	15	9.03
English	13	7.83
History to 1700	14	8.43
History to 1920	1	.60
Industrial	1	.60
Medieval	14	8.43
Medieval and Modern	16	9.63
Modern	10	6.02
Roman	4	2.40
United States	4	2.40
General	2	1.20

The state recommends "History to 1700" and the table shows a desire to follow the suggestion. Seven of the fifteen courses could come under that heading, and doubtless it is the intent of the school and of the instructor to follow, in a general way, the history of Europe up to the beginning of the Modern period. This year follows up the work taken during the freshman year and a student electing a course his second year would follow a natural progression from Ancient to Modern times.

THE SECOND YEAR—TEXTS.

The texts continue many and varied. Some of those used in the first year are dropped, a few are added, but the majority are the same as in the first list:

Author	Number of schools using text	Per cent.
Andrews	1	.60
Ashley	6	3.61
Beard	1	.60
Bogart	1	.60
Botsford	2	1.20
Breasted	3	1.80
Cheyney	2	1.20
Davis	2	1.20
Dunn	7	4.21
Fiske	1	.60
Guitteau	1	.60
Howe	1	.60
Hughes	1	.60
Larned	1	.60
Larson	2	1.20
Montgomery	7	4.21
Morey	7	4.21
Muzzey	1	.60
Myers	25	15.05
Robinson	10	6.01
Robinson and Beard	3	1.80
Robinson and Breasted	18	10.80
Tappan	1	.60
Webster	14	8.43
Wolfson	1	.60
West	23	13.24

The second year produces twenty-six texts to fill the demand for the courses offered. Many authors have written several volumes to fill out their "series," so that we may consider the repetition of some of the familiar names to mean merely the popularity of that particular series carried from one year to the next.

THE THIRD YEAR—COURSES.

The third year produces another long list, with nineteen courses, from which the junior is to choose that one which pleases him most:

Name of course	Number of schools in which it is given	Per cent.
American	31	18.67
American Politics	1	.60
Ancient	13	7.83
Civics	15	9.03
Civil Government	4	2.40
Commerce	1	.60
Economics	3	1.80
European	19	11.44
European to 1920	9	5.40
European to 1700	2	1.20
English	21	12.04
General	1	.60
Greek	4	2.40
Industrial and Commercial ...	1	.60
Irish	1	.60
Modern	27	16.26
Modern and Mediæval	14	8.43
Roman	3	1.80
Vocational Civics	1	.60

The state recommends for the third year "European History since 1700, treated as study of nations other than our own." European, European to 1920, Modern, and Modern and Mediæval, which together total sixty-nine, are probably in the curriculum with that idea in mind. The Roman, Greek, and Ancient, totaling twenty, may have been introduced in order to satisfy some of the colleges which require these subjects within the last year or two of school. In some schools, where these subjects are offered in the freshman year, a review course is given, meeting once or twice a week, in order that the small group who wish to enter college may get ready for their examinations. We also note the introduction of American History and Civil Government, usually listed in the third or fourth year.

THE THIRD YEAR—TEXTS.

The textbooks used in the third year are as follows:

Author	Number of schools using text	Per cent.
Andrews	3	1.80
Ashley	4	2.40
Botsford	4	2.40
Boynton	2	1.20
Beard	2	1.20
Breasted and Beard	1	.60
Breasted	3	1.80
Bishop and Keller	1	.60
Burch and Nearing	1	.60
Channing	3	1.80
Cheyney	11	6.62
Cozen	1	.60
Davis	1	.60
Day	1	.60
Fiske	3	1.80
Flite	2	1.20
Giles	1	.60
Guiteau	4	2.40

Author	Number of schools using text	Per cent.
Harding	4	2.40
Hart	7	4.21
Hazen	2	1.20
Johnston and Spencer	1	.60
Larned	2	1.20
Magruder	1	.60
Martin	1	.60
Montgomery	8	4.81
Morey	2	1.20
Melbau	1	.60
McLaughlin	3	1.80
Muzzey	8	4.81
Myers	9	5.42
Robinson	6	3.61
Robinson and Beard	16	9.63
Robinson and Breasted	5	3.01
Renouf	1	.60
Thomas	2	1.20
Thompson	1	.60
Tufts	1	.60
Webster	5	3.01
West	16	9.63
Westermann	1	.60
Woodburn and Moran	5	3.01
Woodbury	1	.60
Herrick	2	1.20

Forty-four different texts are used in teaching history in the third year of the high school course.

THE FOURTH YEAR—COURSES.

"American History and problems of democracy" are recommended by the state for the fourth year of the high school course. This year adheres more strictly to the suggestion than any other. The majority of schools reserve the final course in history for American. This seems only proper as the seniors will, within three or four years, assume the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. Where Civics, Civil Government, American Government, and Politics and Government are listed separately, we may believe that it was not the intent of the instructor to have us consider them as one separate subject. Practically no school gives Government, as such, in an individual course. Nearly all schools devote some part of the American History course to a study of the fundamental principles of Government.

It will be noted that the senior courses number the least of any of the preceding years. Of the fourteen different courses listed, six relate to United States History and Government, three to problems of democracy, which includes a bit of sociology and economics, and the remainder are probably review courses for those who are preparing for college entrance examinations:

Course offered	Number of schools in which it is given	Per cent.
Ancient	5	3.01
American Government	6	3.61
American Social Problems ...	4	2.40
Civics	8	4.81
Civil Government	2	1.20
Commercial and Industrial ...	1	.60
Current Events	1	.60
Economics	9	5.42
Mediæval and Modern	1	.60
Modern	4	2.40
Politics and Government	1	.60
Problems of Democracy	1	.60
United States	71	42.76
United States and Civics.....	53	31.92

The total of the six courses relating to American History and Government is one hundred forty-one, which indicates that about half the schools offer this work in the senior year.

THE FOURTH YEAR—TEXTS.

The textbooks do not correspond to the small number of different courses:

Author	Number of schools using text	Per cent.
Ashley	13	7.83
Bassett	1	.60
Beard	2	1.20
Bogart	1	.60
Boynton	1	.60
Bullock	2	1.20
Burch and Nearing	1	.60
Butler	1	.60
Channing	18	10.84
Cheyney	1	.60
Davis	2	1.20
Dunn	2	1.20
Ely and Wicker	1	.60
Emerson	1	.60
Fiske	7	4.21
Fite	14	8.43
Forman	7	4.21
Garner	4	2.40
Guitteau	19	11.44
Hart	17	10.24
Hughes	1	.60
Jones	1	.60
Larned	2	1.20
Martin	1	.60
McLaughlin	7	6.62
McMaster	1	.60
Magruder	7	4.21
Montgomery	7	4.21
Muzzey	37	22.44
Robinson and Beard	1	.60
Robinson and Breasted	1	.60
Sandwich	1	.60
Sandford	1	.60
Smith	1	.60
Towne	4	2.40
Tufts	3	1.80
Thompson	7	4.21
West	9	5.42
Woodburn and Moran	8	4.80
Webster	1	.60

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS.

Under the heading "Supplementary Materials" were listed the following:

Magazines	No. of schools	Per cent.
American City	4	2.40
Current Events	12	7.22
Current Opinion	1	.60
Independent	7	4.20
Literary Digest	58	34.93
New Age	1	.60
Outlook	17	10.24
Review of Reviews	11	6.62
Survey	1	.60
World's Work	8	4.81
National Geographic	1	.60
Various Magazines	25	15.06
<i>Miscellaneous</i>		
Encyclopedia	1	.60
Maps	16	9.03
Readings	1	.60
School Library	3	1.80
World War	2	2.20
Reference Books	29	17.46
Lantern Slides	1	.60
Reports	4	2.40
Clippings	2	1.20
Library Books	10	6.02

Magazines	No. of schools	Per cent.
Research Work	1	.60
World Book	1	.60
Current Literature	1	.60
Gov't and State Bulletins	4	2.40
Daily Papers	11	6.62

Hardly a school failed to report the use of some outside material, and, usually, this material was used in either the first or last year of the high school course. Civics and United States History seem to offer the best possibilities for extra classroom work. It can be seen, also, that many instructors failed to get the full import of the question. "Maps" may mean a great deal or nothing. It is impossible to teach a course in history without the use of maps. Under this heading would come the use of charts and wall maps, and, also, the use of outline maps to be filled in by the student.

We may imagine that in many courses assigned to a teacher who has his major interest in another course that little is done to supplement the work of the text. There is not a course in the curriculum which has as much current material as has history. This holds true for all the courses, as a visit to a well-stocked periodical store reveals a wealth of material appearing from weekly to annually on any course. Ancient History has magazines devoted to it as surely as American History. It is gratifying to see so many schools using current magazines. But when only 17 per cent. of the schools in the state use "reference books" we may wonder how broad is the view of the past on the part of the student who must "learn" his text.

GENERAL SUMMARY OF COURSES OFFERED THROUGHOUT THE STATE.

Name of course	Freshman		Sophomore		Junior		Senior	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Ancient	67	40.36	30	18.07	13	7.83	5	3.01
American, or, United States	4	2.40	4	2.40	31	18.67	71	42.76
American Government	0	0	0	6	3.61
American Politics	0	0	1	.60	0
American Social Problems	0	0	0	4	2.40
Civics	94	56.62	11	6.62	15	9.03	8	4.81
Civil Government	0	0	4	2.40	2	1.20
Commerce (History of,?)	0	0	1	.60	0
Commercial and Industrial	0	0	0	1	.60
Current Events	0	0	0	1	.60
Domestic	1	.60	1	.60	0	0
Early European	1	.60	2	1.20	0	0
Economics	0	0	3	1.80	9	5.42
English	7	4.21	13	7.83	21	12.04	0
European	4	2.40	15	9.03	19	11.44	0
European to 1920	0	0	9	5.40	0
European to 1700	0	0	2	1.20	0
General	4	2.40	2	1.20	1	.60	0
Greek	8	4.81	0	4	2.40	0
History to 1700	4	2.40	14	8.43	0	0
History to 1800	1	.60	0	0	0
History to 1920	1	.60	0	0	0
Industrial	3	1.80	1	.60	0	0
Industrial and Commercial	0	0	1	.60	0
Irish	0	0	1	.60	0
Mediaeval	1	.60	14	8.43	0	0

Name of course	Freshman		Sophomore		Junior		Senior	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Mediæval and Modern	2	1.20	16	9.63	14	8.43	1	.60
Modern	2	1.20	10	6.02	27	16.26	4	2.40
Politics and Government .	0	0	0	1	.60
Problems of Democracy ..	0	0	0	1	.60
Roman	5	3.01	4	2.40	3	1.80	0
Social Science .	1	.60	0	0	0
United States and Civics ...	0	0	0	53	31.92
Vocations	1	0	0	0
Vocational Civics	0	0	1	.60	0

The table above illustrates the manner in which the courses are placed in the four years of the high school. It may be that some condition of the community or program has caused this mix-up. It seems, however, that the school and the student in the general average must lose some efficiency, correlation, or concentration as a result. It is improbable that a text could be found which would satisfy our expectations of a student's work which would fit all four years of the high schools of the state. We may account for the great variety from another angle. It may be that some of the courses mean the same though listed under a different name. This fact would not account for their appearance throughout the entire course.

NUMBER OF DIFFERENT COURSES OFFERED IN THE SCHOOLS.

The following table shows the number of different courses offered in the high schools of the state. The number varies according to the size of the school and the number of teachers. In the schools where a teacher is employed for the sole purpose of teaching History, the number of courses ranges from four to six. If there is no regular teacher for the subject the courses are few and are spread among several other teachers. In some schools there are courses enough to occupy a teacher all the time, but rather than centralize the subject and improve it, we find it in the hands of a number of teachers:

Schools having 1 course	6
2 "	16
3 "	35
4 "	61
5 "	27
6 "	10
7 "	6
8 "	1

From the foregoing we see that the schools follow the suggestion of the state as far as numbers are concerned. The greatest number of courses are in the 3, 4, 5 group. For them it is probable that one teacher is employed full time, as the divisions in a class will fill the program of that teacher if the number of courses does not seem to.

The schools offering the extremes; that is, either one or seven and eight, are, strange to say, in a majority of cases some of the largest high schools in the state. The great majority in the 3, 4, 5 group are the average-sized communities. Where one course is given it is Ancient, Civics, or United States His-

tory and Civics. One course is insufficient in any high school. If the time is lacking it may alternate with another course in the program from year to year. The two-course schools offer the following groupings: Civics and American; Civics, elementary and advanced; Modern-Mediæval and American; Civics and Modern; Ancient and American; Ancient and Mediæval. Some of these are logical groupings and others are mismated. In this, as in the first group, alternation may enrich the curriculum, for three or four different courses could be offered by this method. The three-course schools are able to maintain a more logical sequence than the one and two-course group. The combinations noted are: Ancient, U. S., Civics; Ancient, U. S., English; Ancient, U. S., Modern-Mediæval; Ancient, U. S., Social Science; Ancient, General, U. S.; Civics, U. S., European; Greek, Roman, Review; History of Commerce, Industrial History, Government. The four-course group follows the recommendations of the state, with a few minor changes. United States History is taught in the fourth year, as a general rule, with Civics in the first year. Ancient, Modern-Mediæval, Modern, and English fill the vacancies in the second and third years. As the groups rise in numbers superior to the number of years in high school, they not only follow the suggestion of the state, but add such subjects as English History, Economics, Modern, General, Sociology, and Current Events. The student in such a school has a chance to select from more than one course and may study in a field more to his liking than the single course at his disposal in a four-course school. If the organization of the school permitted, it would be a wise step to offer a fifth course and alternate with still another. This would allow election out of the prescribed field and would also allow the teacher to break his usual program, and, perhaps, introduce a subject in which he is especially interested. A course taught by a man who has made it his hobby is likely to have astonishing results through the interest and enthusiasm he may arouse.

CONCLUSION.

The survey of the social sciences in the high schools of Massachusetts has revealed some conditions which are commendable and some which stand in need of correction. There is a wide range of work offered in this field and the majority of the schools have well-organized departments. A student following the program of History throughout his four years of high school work will find himself with a broad and general knowledge of world affairs and well prepared for work in a higher institution. If he goes no further along the educational road than the secondary school he may use what he has studied in his reading of the newspapers and periodicals of the day. For this latter occupation he has been well grounded, for a large majority of the schools use these same publications to connect school with the outside world. The state has made sure of an intelligent and alert citizen body by making the study of American History and Government compulsory, and in this Commonwealth, where the Town Meeting occupies so im-

portant a place in its government, the student receives his first lessons in the school and then goes to the gathering place where he may see his elders practice what he is taught.

The great number of texts used in order to teach the many courses occasions some surprise and leads one to think the number could be reduced without impairing the work. While no state-adopted text is necessary the number of books could be reduced to those used in the greatest numbers or books by some of the standard authors. Many of the texts may be widely used in other parts of the country and may have been introduced into the schools here by a teacher who has settled in the state. They have their merits and their demerits, but the courses will vary according to the books read. This means a diversified state of mind and preparation in all the courses studied; for example, the Civics course for freshmen numbers among the texts used some which are exceedingly elementary in character and others

which are distinctly for the use of mature students. As a suggestion, let the variety be gradually limited until Civics, as such, may mean what it implies.

No attempt has been made to investigate the manner or method of teaching. Such a thing is impossible in a questionnaire. An answer to a question on method or aim does not imply that it is followed or achieved. Personal observation of teaching and results is the only way to determine whether or not the course means all it stands for. The teachers in the state are men and women of ability and are graduates of normal schools or colleges, but a diploma or a degree does not guarantee an ability to popularize or advance the interests of the social sciences.

The social sciences in Massachusetts are on a firm basis. They can be and are being improved. Organization into groups for the discussion of mutual problems by the teachers in this field will hasten the step. An interested teaching force and an interested student body will produce a group of citizens worthy of the name.

Status of Social Studies in the High Schools of Colorado

BY E. B. SMITH, Ph.D.

The extension of the influence of the social studies is being sought by the various agencies which are fostering this phase of education. This effort to extend the influence of the social studies to a greater degree is naturally and necessarily accompanied by studies of the existing conditions. In November, 1922, therefore, a questionnaire relating to the social studies was formulated by the Department of History of Colorado Teachers College in co-operation with the Research Committee. It was sent to the superintendents and principals of the high schools of the first and second-class districts.¹ The high schools of the third-class districts were not considered, for no complete list is available in the office of the State Superintendent, and these schools do not have usually an organized course of study for the four years of the high school period.

Replies to the questionnaire in satisfactory form were received from 31 of the 37 high schools of the first-class districts and from 26 of the 76 high schools of the second-class districts. These results appear adequate to give some fairly accurate impressions of the conduct of the work of the social studies in the high schools of the state.

PLACE OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE FIRST CLASS.

In the programs of history in the schools the influence of the various committees which have planned courses is recognized. The report of the Committee of Seven of the American Historical Association has left the most noticeable effect upon the history teaching in the schools. While only 6 schools adhere strictly to the committee's recommendation, the majority of the others shows unmistakable evidence of remnants of it in the programs modified by the rec-

ommendations of later committees. The modification of the course of study as suggested by the Committee of Five of the American Historical Association is shown in 2 schools by English history being placed earlier in the course than mediæval and modern history. One school only reflects the influence of the Committee on Social Studies in Secondary Education of the National Education Association by giving the senior high school 2 courses in history, European and American. The tendency toward shortening the time devoted to ancient history is shown in the combination of ancient and mediæval history in 9 schools. One school reflects, in a measure, the recommendation of the joint Committee on History and Citizenship of the National Education Association by giving a world survey, followed by a year each of Modern Europe and American history.

The tendency to lessen the time devoted to history is noticed in 19 schools. The eleventh year is conspicuous by having history offered least frequently; in the tenth year the offering is most frequent; and in the ninth and twelfth years the offering is approximately the same.

Among the other social studies, civics occupies the first place. Although it is not taught in so many years of the course, the teaching of civics is practiced in more schools than any other subject. Only one school is reported as not offering it. In accord with the plan of the Committee of Seven it receives attention generally in the twelfth year. Economics is taught in 15 schools in either the eleventh or twelfth year. Six schools offer sociology in the twelfth year, and 2 in the eleventh. The time taken from the study of history appears to be devoted to the other social subjects.

The following tabulations indicate the frequency with which each subject is offered:

Table I. Years in which the various subjects of the social studies are taught in high schools of districts of the first class.

Subject	Y e a r				Not taught
	9	10	11	12	
Ancient history	14	2	15
Ancient and mediæval ..	7	2	22
Mediæval history	1	30
Mediæval and Modern	8	2	..	21
Modern history	13	3	..	15
English history	1	1	4	2	23
General history	1	1	29
American history	9	18	4
Civics	2	1	6	21	1
Economics	6	9	16
Sociology	2	6	23

Among the significant features of Table I is the uniformity of practice shown. Ancient history is taught in the first year in the greater number of schools, and, when it is deferred, it is with two exceptions offered with mediæval history in the tenth year. One school only offers mediæval history as a separate subject, and it is taught in the tenth year. The course in modern history is offered in the tenth year most frequently, although the practice of combining it with mediæval history is common. English history is offered in all four years of the course, but it is offered in 8 schools only. The course in general history is a survey course offered in one school only. The teaching of American history appears to be quite general, for only 5 schools fail to offer the course. The twelfth year is favored for American history, and when it is not offered in the twelfth it is given in the eleventh year. Only two of the subjects are taught in more than 50 per cent. of the schools, and of these two, civics, which is omitted in one school only, receives the greater attention.

PLACE OF SOCIAL STUDIES IN HIGH SCHOOLS OF THE SECOND CLASS.

In the schools of the second-class districts the practices conform more closely to the recommendations of the older committees than in the schools of the first-class districts. With the exception of American history, ancient history receives the greatest recognition. Fifty per cent. of the schools offer it in the ninth year, and two others in the tenth year. The combination of ancient and mediæval history is made in two schools only. Modern European history is recognized by offerings in 8 schools, while English history is given in one school only. Interest in general history remains in 5 schools.

The offering in the other social subjects is limited to the last two years, with the preference for the twelfth year. As in the courses in the high schools of the first-class districts, civics receives the most general attention, for 4 schools only fail to report the offering of the subject in either the eleventh or twelfth year. Economics and sociology occupy places of less prominence than in the larger schools. The data contained in Table II, which follows, show the relative places occupied by these subjects as well as the various subjects of history:

Table II. Years in which the various subjects of the social studies are taught in high schools of districts of the second class.

Subject	Y e a r				Not taught
	9	10	11	12	
Ancient history	13	2	11
Ancient and Mediæval ..	2	24
Mediæval history	1	4	21
Mediæval and Modern	7	1	..	18
Modern history	1	6	1	..	18
English history	1	..	25
General history	1	2	2	..	21
American	2	21	3
Civics	6	16	4
Economics	3	6	17
Sociology	2	3	21

The tendency to shorten the course in history in the smaller schools is more pronounced than in the larger and the three-year course is favored. Fifty-seven per cent., approximately, of the smaller schools have the three-year course in history, while in the larger schools 61 per cent. are limited to the shorter course. In the larger schools, however, there are more four-year courses, for in the second-class schools nine times as many have the two-year as the four-year course. In both classes of schools the course in American history is limited usually to one-half year in order to give place to the course in civic education.

TEXTS USED IN SOCIAL STUDIES.

When the influence which the text has on the teaching in many high schools is considered, it is recognized as important to have information on the texts used in the schools. They indicate the nature of the work attempted. The list of texts in Table III shows certain trends in the teaching of the social studies (see page 371).

REQUIREMENTS IN SOCIAL STUDIES.

The requirements of the schools in the social studies indicate the importance attached to them. The frequency of the requirement is greatest in the schools of the first class, and in these schools the twelfth year is most favored. History is required in 10 high schools of the first rank in the twelfth year, in 6 in the eleventh year, in 4 in the tenth year, and in 4 in the ninth year. The showing in the second-class schools is not so favorable to the subject, for among the larger number of schools no more require it in the twelfth year; in the tenth and eleventh years, the showing is about the same as in the first-class schools, and in the ninth year only 10 schools have a requirement in history. It may be of interest to note that 8 schools in districts of the first class require 2 full years of history. On the other hand, only 1 school of the second class requires 2 years.

Of the other social studies under consideration, civics only appears to be in the list of required subjects. When it is offered it is usually required, for only 6 schools report otherwise. In these 6 schools 37 per cent. of the pupils elect the course in civics. The requirements in civics, as well as in the other social studies, is shown by Table IV (see page 372).

Table III. Frequency with which texts are mentioned in connection with the two classes of schools.

<i>Subject</i>	<i>Text</i>	<i>First class</i>	<i>Second class</i>
Ancient History	Webster, Ancient Times and Middle Ages.....	8	4
	Robinson and Breasted, Europe Ancient and Mediæval...	6	3
	West, Ancient World.....	5	1
	Myers, Ancient History.....	3	8
	Morey, Ancient Peoples.....	1	
Ancient and Mediæval History	Robinson and Breasted, Europe Ancient and Mediæval...	2	
	Webster, Ancient Times and Middle Ages.....	1	
Mediæval History	Robinson and Breasted, Europe Ancient and Mediæval...	1	
	Myers, Mediæval and Modern History.....		2
	Ashley, Early European Civilization.....		1
Mediæval and Modern History	Myers, Mediæval and Modern History.....	4	4
	Webster, Modern Times.....	3	
	West, Modern Progress.....	2	1
	Harding, New World.....	2	
	Robinson and Beard, Our World Today.....	6	5
Modern History	Robinson and Breasted, Our Own Times.....	3	2
	West, Modern Progress.....	3	2
	Webster, Modern Times.....	1	1
	Elson, Modern Times and Living Past.....		1
	Cheyney, Short History of England.....	5	1
English History	Montgomery, Leading Facts.....	1	
General History	Elson, Modern Times and Living Past.....		1
	Myers, General History.....		1
American History	Muzzey, American History.....	19	11
	Hart, New American History.....	2	3
	West, History of the American People.....	2	3
	Channing, Students' History of the United States.....	1	2
	McLaughlin, History of the United States.....		2
	Guitteau, Government and Politics in the United States..	13	14
Civics	Magruder, American Government.....	8	6
	Hughes, American Government.....	5	2
	Ashley, New Civics.....	2	2
	Dunn, Community Civics.....	2	
	Forman, Advanced Civics.....	2	
	Thompson, Elementary Economics.....	6	2
Economics	Burch, American Economic Life.....	3	
	Bullock, Elements of Economics.....		3
	Carver, Elementary Economics.....	3	1
Sociology	Ellwood, Sociology and Modern Social Problems.....	3	3
	Towne, Social Problems.....	2	
	Tuft, Real Business of Living.....	2	
	Burch and Patterson, American Social Problems.....	1	1

When the courses in history are not required they appear to have an interest for the pupils. In the schools of the first-class districts the average enrolment in the elective history courses is 59.8 per cent. of the entire enrolment of the schools, and in the second-class schools the average enrolment is 53.3 per cent. The election in the civics courses is, in schools of the first class, 40 per cent., and in schools of the second class, 52 per cent. In the small number of schools offering the courses in economics and sociology, the percentages in the first and second-class schools are as follows: Economics, 20 and 65, respectively, and sociology, 33 and 68, respectively.

WORK DONE BY TEACHERS OF SOCIAL STUDIES.

The survey of the status of the social studies would be incomplete if a consideration of the work of the teachers of social studies should be omitted. The effectiveness of the work depends, in a measure, upon the amount of other work done by the teachers. This information is contained in Table V (see page 372).

PREPARATION OF TEACHERS.

Since the quality of the work done in any subject is mainly dependent upon the teachers of that subject, it is appropriate that the training of the teachers of the social studies should be considered in relation to the status of the social studies. In Colorado the

preparation of the high school teachers appears to be regulated largely by the requirements of the North Central Association and by those of the University of Colorado. Unless the teachers of a high school have had four years of training beyond the secondary training the school does not rank well with the Association and it does not have recognition as an accredited school by the University. The compliance with these demands is indicated by Table VI (see this page).

To state the facts relative to the training of the teachers of social subjects in other terms, the situation is favorable to university training. Of these teachers, 78 per cent. in the first-class districts and 55 per cent. in the second-class districts are trained in universities, and 22 per cent. and 45 per cent., respectively, are trained in the teacher training institutions.

LIBRARY EQUIPMENT.

As an indication that collateral reading may be indulged in, 24 schools in districts of the first class and 24 schools in districts of the second class report library materials. Aside from those schools connected with institutions, the number of volumes range in the larger schools from 25 to 2,000 and in the smaller schools from 15 to 600. The average number of volumes is 367 and 153, respectively. While this showing of materials for supplementing the texts in the social studies is not conclusive evidence that such work is done, it does indicate an interest in and an opportunity for such highly desirable practice.

CONCLUSION.

While there is no intention to attempt a complete summary or to recommend a program for the social studies in the high schools of the state, some observations on and impressions of the subject, due to responses to the questionnaire, are recorded.

The place of the social studies in the school programs is not definitely fixed. Changes appear to be taking place: the larger schools are experimenting with civics, economics, and sociology at the expense of history, and the smaller schools are conservatively retaining the courses of study in the older forms. The trend away from the older aspects of history toward the more recent phases may also be noted. American history is still in the ascendancy.

With satisfaction to those interested in the social studies a study of the status of these subjects shows an interest in the maintenance of high standards in the training of teachers and in the liberal equipment of libraries for the use of students in the study of these subjects. The training in the universities has been the preparation of the great majority of the special teachers of the social studies, and whether the training is in the university type or that of the teachers' college or normal school, the four-year period of training is usually the prerequisite of the high school teaching.

¹The statute law of Colorado provides for three classes of school districts: the first class has a school population of 1000 or more; the second class, 350 to 1000; and the third class, less than 350.

Table IV. Statement of requirements reported with regard to the social studies.

Year required	No. of schools		Subject	No. of schools	
	1st class	2d class		1st class	2d class
Ninth	4	10	American history ..	17	14
Tenth	4	5	Ancient and Mediæval	3	1
Eleventh ...	6	6	Modern history ...	2	3
Twelfth ...	10	10	Ancient history ...	1	6
No year ...	3	4	General history ...	1	3
			English		1
			Mediæval and Modern ..		2
			Mediæval history ...		1
			Civics	11	16
			Economics		
			Sociology		

Table V. Duties of the teachers of social studies other than teaching the social studies.

Additional duties of teachers	Number of teachers	
	1st class districts	2d class districts
English teaching	4
Debate coaching	2
Mathematics teaching	4	1
Latin teaching	1	1
Science teaching	1	1
Spanish teaching	1	..
Domestic Science teaching	1	..
Athletics coaching	1
Assistant principalship	1

Table VI. Preparation of teachers in the two classes of districts.

Training of teachers	Number of teachers	
	1st class districts	2d class districts
University, 5 years	2	1
University, 4 years	26	11
Teachers College, 4 years	6	7
University, less than 4 years	1	4
Teachers College, less than 4 years	1	4
Normal School	1	2

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Recent Texts in the Social Studies

LIST PREPARED BY R. O. HUGHES, PEABODY HIGH SCHOOL, PITTSBURGH, PA.

Compiler's Note.—The effort has been made to include in this list every textbook for general use in the social studies in the junior and senior high school which has been published since 1916. Regrettable omissions have doubtless occurred in spite of painstaking efforts to consult authors and publishers in order to make the list complete. Of such omissions the compiler would like to be advised, so as to add deserving supplementary titles in a later issue of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK.

It seemed best to omit everything not definitely intended for use as a *textbook*, and to cover only the fields commonly referred to as history, civics, sociology, and economics. The references to grades is on the basis of a course covering twelve years.—
R. O. HUGHES.

UNITED STATES HISTORY.

- Andrews, M. P.: *American History and Government*; Lippincott; 1921; Grade 11-12; follows mainly chronological order with frequent supplementary topics discussed by way of explanation.
- Bassett, J. S.: *The Plain Story of American History*; Macmillan; 1916; Grade 7-8; follows chronological order. About one-half of the book deals with the period up to 1800.
- Beard, C. A., and Bagley W. C.: *History of the American People*; Macmillan; 1918; Grade 8-10; topical treatment. Emphasis on social and industrial development. Useful questions and outlines.
- Beard, C. A., and Beard, M. R.: *History of United States*; Macmillan; 1921; Grade 11-12; presents American History on the topical basis. Details of colonial period and familiar anecdotes omitted to give space for new and extensive treatment of later problems.
- Burnham, S.: *The Making of Our Country*; Winston; 1920; Grade 7-9; combines topical and chronological method of treatment. Has numerous specific references for reading and study. Copies of historical paintings.
- Evans, L. B.: *Essential Facts of American History*; Sanborn; 1920; Grade 7-8;
- Fite, E. D.: *History of the United States*; Holt; 1916; Grade 12; many illustrative quotations, suggestive questions, and reference topics.
- Guitteau, W. B.: *Our United States*; Silver, Burdett; 1919; Grade 8-9; usually broad treatment of foreign relations.
- Gordy, W. F.: *History of United States*; Scribners; 1922; Grade 7-8; relatively full on Colonial and Revolutionary period. Recent history treated topically.
- Halleck, R. P.: *History of Our Country*; American Book Co.; 1922; Grade 7-8; interesting narrative seeking to lay special stress on significant events. Unique illustrations.
- Hart, A. B.: *New American History*; American Book Co.; 1917, revised 1921; Grade 11-12; presents what the author regards as the essential facts of American History rather than merely those commonly related in textbooks.
- Hulbert, A. B.: *United States History*; Doubleday, Page & Co.; 1922; Grade 11-12; special attention to the effect of natural resources and the development of the West upon American History.
- Latané, J. H.: *History of United States*; Allyn and Bacon; 1919; Grade 11-12; considerable attention is given to military and political history.
- Long, W. J.: *America—A History of Our Country*; Ginn; 1923; Grade 7-8; begins with discussion of present-day America, but proceeds along more usual lines.
- Mace, W. H., and Bogardus, E. S.: *School History of the United States*; Rand, McNally; 1920; Grade 7-8;
- Moore, J. R. H.: *Industrial History of American People*; Macmillan; 1916; Grade 11-12; economic development of the United States treated topically.
- Stephenson, N. W.: *American History*; Ginn; 1921; Grade 11-12; written by a southerner, but not in partisan spirit.
- Stephenson, N. W., and M. T.: *School History of United States*; Ginn; 1921; Grade 7-8; the same author, but written with lower grades in mind.
- Thompson, C. M.: *History of the United States*; Sanborn; 1917, revised 1922; Grade 11-12; organized mainly around social and economic topics.
- Thompson, W.: *History of the People of the United States*; Heath; 1920;
- Wells, L. R.: *Industrial History of the United States*; Macmillan; 1922; Grade 11-12; topical treatment based on four chronological periods. Extensive "studies" and questions for references.
- West, W. M.: *History of American People*; Allyn and Bacon; 1918, revised 1922; Grade 11-12; vigorous style, strong convictions.

Other widely used texts published before 1915, but frequently revised so as to keep virtually up to date include: Ashley, "American History" (Macmillan); Bogart, "Economic History of the United States" (Longmans); Forman, "Advanced American History" (Century); Muzzey, "American History" (Ginn); McLaughlin, "History of the American Nation" (Appleton); McLaughlin and Van Tyne, "History of the United States for Schools" (Appleton).

EUROPEAN AND WORLD HISTORY.

- Ashley, R. L.: *Modern European Civilization*; Macmillan; 1918; Grade 9-11; World History treated from the newer viewpoint. Emphasizes modern problems with due attention to sociological and economic influence. "Early European Civilization" published at an earlier date.
- Botsford, G. W., and J. B.: *Brief History of the World*; Macmillan; 1920; Grade 10-12; surveys the history of civilization with special emphasis on social and economic conditions.
- Breasted, J. H.: *Ancient Times*; Ginn; 1916; Grade 9-10; oriental field extensively treated. Narrative continued to the break up of the Roman Empire. For a year's work.
- Breasted, J. H.: *Survey of the Ancient World*; Ginn, 1919; Grade 9-10; similar to *Ancient Times*, but briefer.
- Davis, W. S., and McKendrick, N. S.: *History of Mediæval and Modern Europe*; Houghton, Mifflin; 1920;
- Elson, H. W.: *Modern Times and the Living Past*; American Book Co.; 1921; Grade 10-12; an effort to adjust the old general history idea to the modern tendency to emphasize recent times. Published also in two parts.
- Harding, S. B.: *New Mediæval and Modern History*; American Book Co.; 1920; Grade 10-12; originally prepared to cover the old field of mediæval and modern history.
- Herrick, C. A.: *History of Commerce and Industry*; Macmillan; 1920; Grade 11-12; intended specifically as a general history text for commercial schools or classes. Takes the commercial and industrial point of view.
- Hayes, C. J. H., and Moon, P. T.: *Modern History*; Macmillan; 1923; Grade 10-12; organized under six main headings. Rapid survey of world progress to the modern period; then reasonably full treatment of main lines of development.
- Mackie, R. L.: *Short Social and Political History of Britain*; World Book Co.; Grade 8-12; brief, but indicates the development of significant features of English History.

- Newman, J. B.: *Beginner's Ancient History*; World Book Co.; 1922; Grade 8-9; brief survey of significant contributions of ancient peoples to modern civilization. Goes to 1000 A. D.
- Newman, J. B.: *Beginner's Modern History*; World Book Co.; 1922; Grade 10; similar in style to "Ancient History" by the same author.
- Robinson, J. H., Breasted, J. H., and Smith E.: *General History of Europe*; Ginn; 1921; Grade 10-12; one year course from prehistoric man to the present. Also published in two volumes with division about 1700.
- Robinson, J. H., and Beard, C. A.: *History of Europe—Our Own Times*; Ginn; 1921; Grade 10-12; from French Revolution to date. One-half the book devoted to the last fifty years.
- Robinson, J. H., and Breasted, J. H.: *History of Europe—Ancient and Medieval*; Ginn; 1917; Grade 10-11; a narrative of the life of man from earliest known beginnings to the eve of the French Revolution.
- Van Loon, H. W.: *Story of Mankind*; Macmillan; 1923; Grade 10-11; not originally written as a textbook. Somewhat sketchy; lively and interesting, sometimes flippant style; crude, but striking illustrations.
- Webster, H.: *World History*; Heath; 1921; Grade 10-11.
- Webster, H.: *Early European History*; Heath; 1917; Grade 10-12.
- Webster, H.: *Modern European History*; Heath; 1920; Grade 10-12.
- Prof. Webster has published a number of texts on general history in the last few years. The substance of the treatment of various topics is very similar in most of the books, being expanded or contracted to fit the necessities of limited or extended treatment. Considerable attention is given to the American phases of World History. Other titles are, "Ancient History," "Medieval and Early Modern Times," "Modern Times," and "Modern European History." The first three of these are also published in various combinations.
- West, W. M.: *World Progress*; Allyn and Bacon; 1922; Grade 10-11; covers field of World History from the modern viewpoint in one volume. Also issued in separate volumes: "A Short History of Early Peoples," and "A Short History of Modern Peoples." All the West books are characterized by the use of italics and black-faced type to emphasize important facts and statements.
- West, W. M.: *Story of Man's Early Progress*; Allyn and Bacon; 1920; Grade 9-10; World History to the eighteenth century.
- West, W. M.: *Story of Modern Progress*; Allyn and Bacon, 1920; Grade 10-11; begins with a brief survey of early history, but devotes most space to modern times.
- Andrews's "History of England" (Allyn and Bacon), and Cheyney's "History of England" (Ginn) have also been issued recently in thoroughly revised editions.
- CIVICS AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS.**
- Adams, E. W.: *Community Civics*; Scribners; 1920; Grade 7-8; approaches subject from the chief interest of community life rather than formal government or sociology.
- Ames, E. W., and Eldred, A.: *Community Civics*; Macmillan; 1919; Grade 8-9; historical approach to present problems of community life.
- Ashley, R. L.: *The New Civics*; Macmillan; 1917, revised 1921; Grade 11-12; the first advanced text to approach the subject of Civics from the problem viewpoint.
- Ashley, R. L.: *The Practice of Citizenship*; Macmillan; 1922; Grade 7-9; seeks to develop the pupil's interest through an approach based on his immediate surroundings in home school.
- Berry, M. K., and Howe, S. B.: *Actual Democracy*; Prentice-Hall; 1923; Grade 11-12; limited number of important present-day problems, suggested by New Jersey course in Problems of Democracy.
- Burch, H. R., and Patterson, S. H.: *American Social Problems*; Macmillan; 1918; Grade 11-12; topics deal with the evolution of society, and present problems of city and country. Purely political or economic problems omitted.
- Burch, H. R., and Patterson, S. H.: *Problems of American Democracy*; Macmillan; 1922; Grade 11-12; topics cover the general field of Economics and Sociology, with some discussion of government.
- Davis, S. E., and McClure, C. H.: *Our Government*; Laidlaw; 1922.
- Dawson, E.: *Organized Self-Government*; Holt; 1919; Grade 8-10; viewpoint is primarily political, but the services rendered by government receive consideration. Seeks to develop pupil's sense of personal responsibility.
- Dunn, A. W.: *Community Civics for City Schools*; Heath; 1921; Grade 8-10.
- Dunn, A. W.: *Community Civics and Rural Life*; Heath; 1920; Grade 8-10.
- General treatment like author's early book, "The Community and the Citizen." These two books have special chapters devoted to rural life and to city pupils, with several chapters the same in both. Many statistics.
- Finch, C. E.: *Everyday Civics*; American Book Co.; 1921; Grade 7-8; based upon the project idea. Comparatively brief.
- Finney, R. L.: *Elementary Sociology*; Sanborn; 1923; Grade 12; emphasizes the functions of social institutions, treating social problems incidentally.
- Forman, S. E.: *American Democracy; Century*; 1920; Grade 11-12; chief stress on activities of government, but considerable attention given to the problems with which governments must deal. Charts and diagrams, but few pictures.
- Fradenburgh, C. A.: *American Community Civics*; Hinds; 1919; Grade 8-9.
- Greenan and Meredith: *Problems in American Democracy*; Houghton-Mifflin; 1923; Grade 12; to be published soon.
- Hayes, Bridget E.: *American Democracy*; Holt; 1921; Grade 11-12; topical treatment of subjects relating to or having influence upon American Democracy.
- Hepner: *Studies in Community Life*; Houghton-Mifflin; 1923; Grade 7-8; Socialized Civics for junior high schools.
- Hill, H. C.: *Community Life and Civic Problems*; Ginn; 1922; Grade 8-9; approach is from sociological side, but gives attention also to economic and political topics. Long reference lists are valuable in case of class correlation between English and Civics.
- Howe, J. B.: *New Era Civics*; Iroquois Publishing Co.; 1921; Grade 8-9; government treated from the standpoint of Community Civics.
- Hughes, R. O.: *Community Civics*; Allyn and Bacon; 1917, revised 1923; Grade 8-10; approaches the subject from the community viewpoint, but takes national government as a basis for comparison with others. A product of the classroom. All the Hughes books are fully illustrated.
- Hughes, R. O.: *Elementary Community Civics*; Allyn and Bacon; 1922; Grade 7-8; discusses the "Elements of Welfare" in community life and concludes with analysis of fundamental facts about government.
- Hughes, R. O.: *Problems of Democracy*; Allyn and Bacon; 1922; Grade 11-12; organized around five great fundamental needs, each one analyzed into its component special problems.
- Hughes, R. O.: *Textbook in Citizenship*; Allyn and Bacon; 1923; Grade 8-10; for a full year's work. Covers the ground of the author's *Community Civics* and *Economic Civics*.
- Johnson, W. E., and Ransom, E. C.: *Community Civics*; Educator Supply Co., Mitchell, S. Dak.; 1922; Grade 6-8; elementary treatment of topics interesting to beginners in civics.
- Long, J. R.: *Government of the People*; Scribners; 1922; Grade 11-12; a study of the organization and foundation of the various departments of government.
- Levis, E. C.: *Citizenship*; Harcourt, Brace and Co.; 1923; Grade 8-10; a community civics by a practical teacher. Relatively little attention to national government.

- Magruder, F. A.: *American Government*; Allyn and Bacon; 1917, revised 1923; Grade 11-12; full and interesting discussion of American Government, national, state, and local. Statistical tables.
- Mavity, A. B., and N. B.: *Responsible Citizenship*; Sanborn; 1923; Grade 9-10; part one takes up American ideals and our efforts to put them into practice. Part two discusses our political institutions.
- Morehouse, F. E., and Graham: *American Problems*; Ginn; 1922; Grade 12; traces the origin of present-day institutions with the effects of each on society.
- Munro, W. B., and Ozanne, C. E.: *Social Civics*; Macmillan; 1922; Grade 12; touches important topics in civics, economics, and sociology. Special attention to international relations. Illustrations limited, but of artistic merit.
- Reed, T. H.: *Form and Functions of American Government*; World Book Co.; 1916; Grade 12; also later revisions. Shows the development and present status of American Government, with discussion of the chief governmental problems.
- Reed, T. H.: *Loyal Citizenship*; World Book Co.; 1921; Grade 7-8; elementary discussion of the duties of the citizen in his various relations in life.
- Rugg, H., Rugg, E., and Schweppe, E.: *Social Science Pamphlets*; Authors; 1922; Grade 7-9; an effort to combine history, geography, and civics in a unified treatment of topics rather than to consider them separate subjects. Great variety of material proposed. Series not yet complete.
- Smith, J. F.: *Our Neighborhood*; Winston; 1918; Grade 7-8; distinctively a book for rural schools.
- Towne, E. T.: *Social Problems*; Macmillan; 1916, revised 1921; Grade 11-12; studies of present-day practical problems, keeping theory in the background.
- Tufts, J. W.: *The Real Business of Living*; Holt; 1917, 1918; Grade 11-12; traces the development of social, industrial, and political ideals. Strong ethical tones. No pictures.
- Turkington, G. A.: *Community Civics*; Ginn; 1923; Grade 8-9; emphasizes the citizen in his relation to organized society. Numerous problems and exercises.
- Turkington, G. A.: *My Country*; Ginn; 1918; Grade 7-8; special emphasis on patriotism. A product of the war.
- Williamson, T. R.: *Problems in American Democracy*; Heath; 1922; Grade 12; scholarly treatment of present-day problems. No illustrations.
- Woodburn, J. A., and Moran, T. F.: *The Citizen and the Republic*; Longmans, Green and Co.; 1918, 1921; Grade 11-12; takes the political viewpoint but deals with political activities rather than mere governmental organization.
- Ziegler, S. H., and Jacquette, H.: *Our Community*; Winston; 1918; Grade 7-8; community civics with special reference to city problems. Comparatively brief.
- Guiteau's "Government and People of the United States" and "Preparing for Citizenship" (Houghton); Ellwood's "Sociology and Modern Social Problems" (American), and doubtless others, have also been revised and reissued recently.

ECONOMICS AND VOCATIONS.

- Bullock, C. A.: *Elements of Economics*; Silver Burdett; revised 1923; Grade 12; an old standard book now thoroughly revised.
- Burch, H. R.: *American Economic Life*; Macmillan; 1921; Grade 11-12; topics presented from the standpoint of problems rather than of theory. Topics for discussion. Diagrams, but no pictures.
- Carlton, F. T.: *Elementary Economics*; Macmillan; 1920; Grade 9-11; brief, but clear treatment of present-day industrial conditions. Written simply. No illustrations.
- Carver, T. N.: *Elementary Economics*; Ginn; 1920; Grade 11-12; chief principles of Economics with their ethical phases, treated from the viewpoint of a progressive society.

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- Doughton, Isaac: *Preparing for the World's Work*; Scribners; 1922; Grade 6-8; designed to present to pupils the many sides of modern industrial life without making detailed study of vocations.
- Faubel, A. L.: *Principles of Economics*; Harcourt, Brace & Co.; 1923; Grade 11-12; conversational style. Numerous references and questions.
- Fairchild, F. R.: *Essentials of Economics*; American Book Co.; 1923; Grade 11-12; emphasizes the business side of Economics. Illustrations.
- Giles, F. M., and I. K.: *Vocational Civics*; Macmillan; 1919, revised 1922; Grade 8-10; presents information about occupations with the purpose of leading pupils to choose thoughtfully.
- Gowin, E. B., Wheatly, W. A., and Brewer, J. M.: *Occupations*; Ginn; 1923; Grade 7-9; interesting study of classes of occupations. Recognizes the interests of girls as well as of boys.
- Hughes, R. O.: *Economic Civics*; Allyn and Bacon; 1921; Grade 8-9; presents fundamental economic principles elementary style. Stresses the need of co-operation.
- Laing, G. H.: *Introduction to Economics*; Gregg; 1919; Grade 11-12; special emphasis on money, banking, and international trade. No illustrations.
- Lapp, J. A.: *Economics and the Community*; Century; 1922; Grade 9-10; seeks to present fundamental principles of economics so as to make this interesting to pupils who will have no further opportunity for study in the subject.
- Leavitt, F. M., and Brown, Edith: *Elementary Social Science*; Macmillan; 1917; Grade 8-9; intended especially for young pupils in vocational or commercial schools. Economic topics receive more attention than others.
- Marshall, L. C., and Lyon, L. S.: *Our Economic Organization*; Macmillan; 1921; Grade 11-12; a series of "studies" showing the development of industrial society and its present organization. Theory is kept in the background. Numerous interesting problems.
- O'Hara, Frank: *Introduction to Economics*; Macmillan; Grade 11-12; presents the essentials of Economic theory as a basis for sound reasoning.
- Osgood, E. L.: *History of Industry*; Ginn; 1921; Grade 10-11; development of industry from pastoral and agricultural stages to modern times.
- Thompson, C. M.: *Elementary Economics*; Sanborn; 1920; Grade 11-12; seeks to furnish some theory as well as practical discussion for the special benefit of pupils who will not go to college. Extensive questions and problems.

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROF. J. M. GAMBRILL, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

A History of Rome. By Tenney Frank. (American Historical Series, C. H. Haskins, General Editor.) Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1923. 613 pp. \$3.50.

This book, from the active pen of the genial Latinist of Johns Hopkins, is better suited to the needs of the general reader than to those of the college student of Roman History. It is written with the same flair for telling literary expression, power of constructive imagination, and skill of combining the data of political, military, economic, and cultural life which mark the pages of his contributions to the historical and classical reviews, his *Roman Imperialism*, the *Economic History of Rome*, and the *Vergil: a Biography*.

In his preface the author announces it to be his purpose to break with tradition and write with an eye more to American than to European historical interests. This leads him to stress the history of the Roman Republic and to neglect somewhat that of the Empire, for he conceives our major interest to be "Rome's earlier attempts at developing an effective government while trying to preserve democratic institutions." Under another name this merely perpetuates the tradition of the old school of historical writing, with its tendency to subordinate Roman history to the purposes of Classical Philology, and its unconcern for the literature of the post-Augustan age (with the exception of the Silver Age under Trajan and Hadrian). The result is that Tenney Frank has given us what is probably the best and certainly the most interesting textbook account of the history of the Roman Republic, but a superficial ill-proportioned, and all-too-inaccurate narrative of Roman imperial history, quite deficient for example when compared with Boak's treatment of the same period. For the republican field Professor Frank is too devoted an admirer of Livy, and

for the period of Roman royalty and the early republic he should have profited more from the studies of Pais, De Sanctis, and Eduard Meyer. Those acquainted with his earlier work will encounter some of his unproved theories: the *ius fetiale* as a deterrent to Roman wars of aggression (pp. 86-87); soil exhaustion and its economic consequences (pp. 59, 403, 570-571); Roman bimetalism (76-78); his enthusiasm for epicureanism and his disdain for stoicism (316-319). The space allotted to the detailed political history of the Age of Caesar and Cicero (whom Mr. Frank admires almost without stint) appears to be disproportionate to the limits of the book. These criticisms of his treatment of the republican period, however, only concern matters of emphasis and detail. No student can fail to derive both inspiration and useful information from the author's moving narrative of political events, his excellent description of the development and functioning of the government under the Republic, his skilful use of archeological data, and the splendid sections dealing with military and economic history.

His history of the Roman Empire shows no such command of the field. He neglects to deal with Christian literature, the development of Christian institutions and the expansion of Christianity, and his account of the relations of Roman State and Christian Church is inaccurate and deficient. He fails, too, in a just appraisal of the reigns of Diocletian and Constantine. Roman imperial and provincial administration, legal development, the network of Roman roads, economic and social conditions, linguistic change, education, and *Weltanschauung* might have been treated with greater fulness and sympathy.

The bibliography is serviceable for the Republic, but should be supplemented on the Empire. The index could have been made more useful by the addition of more detailed references. The 11 maps are fair,

but only three (double page) are printed in color; none are included to show early ethnic groups in Italy, the expansion of the city of Rome, the unification of the Italian peninsula, the empire in the time of Augustus, Christianity in the Roman Empire, or the Germanic invasions.

JOHN R. KNIPFING.

Ohio State University.

New Guide to Reference Books. By Isadore Gilbert Mudge. American Library Association, Chicago, 1923. ix, 278 pp. \$3.00.

This invaluable *Guide* would richly repay a wider use by teachers of history and other social studies, both in high school and college, and it ought to be regarded as an indispensable tool in every school library. The history of this undertaking began in 1902, when Alice B. Kroeger prepared for the American Library Association a *Guide to the Study and Use of Reference Books*, which almost at once became widely used in library schools, and was revised and enlarged in 1908. After the author's death in 1909, Miss Mudge, reference librarian at Columbia University, prepared a number of supplements, and in 1917 a revised and enlarged edition, changed to such an extent as to make it almost a new work. This is the basis of the present edition, still further revised and enlarged, following the same general plan, but with many improvements of arrangement and detail and the addition of some new sections and divisions; 2,100 titles are listed.

A detailed statement of title, author, number of

volumes, illustrations, maps, size, price, publisher, etc., is given for every title, and in the case of more important works a critical annotation. The work is remarkably comprehensive, including besides encyclopedias, dictionaries, annuals, periodical indexes, and the like, twelve chapters devoted to special subjects, among them the social studies, history, biography, geography, government documents, useful and fine arts, and literature. The table of contents has been greatly improved in typographical arrangement and clearness. Many foreign language titles are included. The detailed general index, occupying 44 pages of three columns each, supplies ready reference by authors, titles, and subjects. An introduction discusses reference books and how to study them.

Intelligent care and patience and enormous labor have evidently gone into the compiling of this work and in bringing up to date the thousands of details which it records. The list extends to publications of the spring of 1922, and occasionally later, with apparently very few omissions of any moment. One might wish that in all cases the original date of publication were included, that more titles were annotated, and that reference to extended critical reviews were more frequently given, but it seems ungracious to demand more from a work so comprehensive. It is a reference book of unique value.

America: A History of Our Country. By William J. Long. Ginn and Company, New York, 1923. 531 pages. \$1.64.

Dr. Long has been well known for many years

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as author of textbooks on English and American literature and as a writer of popular books on nature. *America*, a grammar grade textbook and his first venture in the writing of history, is a surprising combination of what is good and what is bad in such a textbook.

The style is clear, vigorous, interesting, with real literary quality. In its detailed statements of fact the book maintains a high standard of accuracy. The treatment of European backgrounds throughout is a valuable feature which every teacher will appreciate. The handling of the Civil War is unusually broad and fair, while the Great War is discussed without bitterness, without dogmatic statements about causes, and with much more sanity than most recent textbook writers have shown. But Dr. Long avowedly writes American history "as an epic of human liberty," and thus his narrative tends far more to glorify the country and its heroes than to present an account that is discriminating and accurate in the deeper sense. The first chapter, "Our Country," and the last chapter, "The Meaning of America," are particularly sentimental examples of the spirit that colors the whole book. The handling of the Revolutionary War is the outstanding example of how the eagle screams in the old way, the English wholly wrong, the colonial patriots without fault. Ignoring the recent work of scientific historians, Dr. Long speaks with the voice of fifty years ago, and, in addition, he protests against the use of the name "Revolution" on the ground that the patriot party "fought not to destroy but to save; not to set up a new government but to preserve the old which their fathers had established."

The author has definite opinions and states them, e. g., his admiration for the Puritans is unlimited. War and military history bulk large, 40 pages being devoted to the military history of the Revolution and 25 to the battles and campaigns of the Civil War. The theme of the book is consistently political and confined almost wholly to the growth of the country through governmental organization and activities. Economic history in relation to politics receives some attention, though in such condensed form that it is doubtful whether children can understand it. Social history, as that term is now used, is almost wholly neglected. It is surprising that an author of Dr. Long's interests and experience should entirely omit any account of the development of literature and of education in America. The author is not a school man and does not pretend to organize his subject matter according to any "method" of teaching. The chapter summaries promise more harm than good to the pupils, not because they are poor summaries, but because the pupils ought to do this sort of thing for themselves. There is a bibliography of several pages, with annotations that are personal rather than representative of historical scholarship. The numerous illustrations include several in color. Whatever its faults, the book presents a lively, well-written narrative, with a real personality behind it.

MARION G. CLARK.

N. J. State Normal School, Glassboro.

World Progress. By Willis Mason West. Part I, *A Short History of Early Peoples.* 327 + 28 pp. \$1.60. Part II, *A Short History of Modern Peoples.* 340 + 20 pp. \$1.50. Allyn and Bacon, New York, 1922.

Modern and Contemporary European Civilization. By Harry Grant Plum and Gilbert Giddings Benjamin, in collaboration with Bessie L. Pierce. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1923. 413 pp. \$2.20.

For the purpose of adjusting his *World Progress* to the unfortunately increasing demand for half-year courses in European history, Professor West has published it in two parts. In the main, the book is characteristic of the other West histories as to illustrations, maps, and other mechanical features. In *Early Peoples*, which covers the period from pre-historic times to the end of the Renaissance, the author lays chief stress on Greek and early Roman times, devoting only about one-fourth of the volume to the period from 378 A. D. to 1500. Time perspective is well secured throughout, in spite of the understressing of the mediæval period. Only those events and movements of early times are included which can easily be comprehended in terms of the present day. In the second part, which covers modern history as customarily defined, the author partially atones for the virtual disappearance of English history as a separate study in high schools by emphasizing that part of modern development as a background for the study of American history. Some of the more recent historical interests and tendencies are marked by the treatment of European interests in and influence upon non-European lands, especially in the Far East, though at the expense of adequate attention to the states of western Europe.

Modern and Contemporary European Civilization represents an attempt to interpret the leading events of the past century in the light of recent events, as the sub-title, "The Persisting Factors of the World War," indicates. The chapters are grouped into parts, the first dealing with the immediate preface to and terms of the Treaty of Versailles. Other parts continue with the failure of European diplomacy since the Congress of Vienna, the Near Eastern Question, Nationality and Democracy, Commerce and the World War, the State and Industrial Democracy, and a final section is devoted to the United States and the War. The subject matter within these respective parts is generally developed chronologically, though as a whole the book presents a counter-chronological treatment of late modern history. The nine maps in the text show political and economic conditions in Europe since 1914. The illustrations are practically confined to the individuals and groups who have figured in recent history. Very brief reading lists are appended to the chapters. While the book possesses some features which recommend it to the mature student, it does not seem to be well adapted to secondary school use in style, vocabulary, or interpretation.

HALFORD L. HOSKINS.

Tufts College.

Hoyt's New Cyclopedia of Practical Quotations. Revised and enlarged by Kate Louise Roberts. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York, 1923. 1374 pp. \$7.50.

First published in 1881, revised and enlarged in 1896, *Hoyt's Cyclopedia* has long held a leading place among dictionaries of quotations. The present edition has been thoroughly revised and considerably enlarged, with numerous improvements in arrangement and detail, and printed from new type. Quotations both in English and foreign languages (with translation) and on "special subjects" are now incorporated in one alphabetical list. Many of the sections have been extended, some old material has been dropped and many new headings have been added, most of the changes being for the better. Current interests are recognized in the addition or extension of such lists as those on America, Washington, Patriotism, War (350 quotations), Flag (number quadrupled), and Woman (235 quotations). The editor attempts with some success to include quotations from recent writers as well as the old stock of sayings. Under "Patriotism," for instance, we have not only Seneca, Shakespeare, and Dr. Johnson, but Terence McSwiney, Woodrow Wilson, and H. G. Wells. Under the heading "War" this effort takes the form of sayings and catch words of the World War, the Germans being represented entirely by such utterances as "The Song of Hate," *spurlos versenkt*, and the views of Bernhardt and the ex-Kaiser. Occasionally a quotation seems obviously dragged in, like the pointless and uncharacteristic one from Bryan in the list on "War." "History" has had its allotment increased, but is inadequately treated, even Napoleon's frequently quoted cynicism being omitted.

The topical indexes and cross references have been consolidated, extended, elaborated, and placed at the front of the book. The elaborate Concordance, with an improved form of citation, gives quick access to any quotation included. The list of Authors Quoted gives information about death and birth and the pages where the author is quoted, although it is impossible to include the latter feature in the case of numerous celebrities who are represented too frequently. Where one's interest is primarily in the authors quoted, Dole's 1914 revision of Bartlett's *Familiar Quotations* will still be preferred. The exact reference given in connection with most of the quotations is a particularly helpful feature. For all-around general reference by teacher, writer, and public speaker, Hoyt's is the most comprehensive and useful dictionary of quotations.

Turkey, the Great Powers, and the Bagdad Railway: A Study in Imperialism. By Edward Mead Earle. New York, The Macmillan Company, 1923. xiii + 364 pp.

The post-war European situation, kaleidoscopic changes in western Asia, and recent Turkish concessions to American interests have kept the magic pitcher of interest in the Near East constantly filled, and are sufficient *raison d'être* for another book on that field. The author of the present work has chosen

for his theme the many ramifications of the Bagdad Railway project. The first five chapters are devoted to the economic background of the subject. The remainder of the book deals more at length with "the political problem of prescribing for a 'Sick Man' who was determined to take iron as a tonic," and it concludes with the phenix-like rise of the new republic of Turkey from the ashes of the Ottoman Empire into the unchanged world of politico-economic imperialism.

The chapters dealing with the Bagdad Railway as an economic venture are well based, well proportioned, and illuminating. Here it appears that the Railway was begun more or less as an international enterprise, in which all the Great Powers had an opportunity to share. The author depicts clearly, though he does not seem to regard it as being inevitable, the rise of diplomatic and political rivalries in the wake of economic penetration. Russia, France, and particularly Britain had much to gain and little to fear from German construction and control of the road. But seen as a political move, the line struck squarely at the spot where the interests of Britain, France, and Russia came together, and thus its bearing upon the history of the Triple Entente enters. Throughout the story to the end of the World War the statement is borne out that "at best Turkish sovereignty was a polite fiction—it was always a fiction, if not always politeness." Structurally, the book is undoubtedly sound. It is well organized and is supported by a great many references, mainly to official or primary sources. The account is generally impartial, even though evident sympathy is evinced for German economic expansion in western Asia and everywhere for Turkey. In a few relatively unimportant places inaccurate materials have led the author into some error; for instance, with respect to the navigation of the Euphrates (p. 74) and early projects for a trans-Mesopotamian railway (pp. 176-7). Not many exceptions need be taken to the author's interpretation of events.

The book is written in flowing style and felicitous vein, with considerable color and many touches of humor. The use of repetition for the sake of emphasis and attempts to secure balance seem overdone at times. The first and last portions are especially well and convincingly written, and, taken altogether, the work is a distinct contribution to our understanding of the place of the Bagdad Railway in international relations.

HALFORD L. HOSKINS.

Tufts College.

The New Larned History for Ready Reference Reading and Research. Donald E. Smith, editor-in-chief. To be completed in 12 vol., 6 vol. now ready. C. A. Nichols Pub. Co., Springfield, Mass., 1922-23.

This revision and enlargement of a very useful work of reference is an enterprise of special interest. It will be reviewed in future issues of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK; the first six volumes will be treated next month.

Book Notes

Bertram Russell's *Free Thought and Official Propaganda* (B. W. Huebsch, New York, 1922; 56 pp.; \$0.75) is an able and well-written brief, arguing forcibly for the "wish to find out," the "will to doubt," instead of William James' "will to believe." He points out that freedom of thought is at present limited in various practical ways, legal and otherwise, "in every large country known to me except China, which is the last refuge of freedom." Education is now too much devoted to propaganda for the established order of things and too little concerned with creating the scientific temper and the spirit of skepticism, which the author believes would result in curing a large proportion of social ills. "Education has become one of the chief obstacles to intelligence and freedom of thought," and Mr. Russell has some definite though brief suggestions about teaching history. His attitude and point of view remind one of those which Prof. James Harvey Robinson develops at greater length in his *Mind in the Making*. This brief but effective essay will be read with delight by believers in freedom; to others it will certainly be an anathema.

The third edition, revised, of Prof. William R. Shepherd's *Historical Atlas* is now available. (Henry Holt & Company, New York, 1923. Maps 216 pp., Index 94 pp. \$3.90). Since its original publication in 1911 this Atlas has been recognized as easily the leading work of its kind, the German Putzger

being the only other even comparable, with the English Muir and the American Dow less comprehensive in scope and much inferior in beauty of engraving. The maps, beautifully made, are printed as originally in Leipzig, Germany, and the revision has been "limited mainly to an indication of the territorial consequences of political and military events since 1914," despite the wish of both author and publisher to incorporate many valuable suggestions which they acknowledge. Fourteen of the map pages, representing all parts of the world where changes have occurred, have been corrected and revised, and a new double-page map of "Europe at the Present Time" has been inserted, the new states being indicated in such a way as to bring out clearly and instantly the magnitude of the changes through central Europe from north to south. Some matters of detail have been improved, particularly the strengthening of colors in the map (pp. 210-211), showing the westward development of the United States. Eventually the *Atlas* is to be thoroughly revised; meanwhile, it is very fortunate to have it available, the present edition.

Mackie's *A Short Social and Political History of Britain*, reviewed last month by Prof. W. T. Morgan and credited to Harrap, London, is published in America by the World Book Company, Yonkers, New York.

The general thesis of Professor Charles A. Beard's *The Economic Basis of Politics* is indicated by the title and is familiar to readers of the author's other

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books, particularly his *Economic Interpretation of the Constitution of the United States* and his *Economic Origins of Jeffersonian Democracy*. The little volume is based on a series of lectures delivered several years ago at Amherst College on the Clark Foundation. In brief but masterly summaries, Mr. Beard examines the views of a number of political philosophers, from the Greeks to the Americans, and searchingly inquires into the fundamental reasons for various forms of governments and the historical development of the state. He has written a brilliant essay, which, quite apart from one's opinion of the author's doctrine, is very stimulating and informing to any reader who has not made a special study of the history of political theory. (Alfred A. Knopf, New York, 1922; 99 pp.; 75 cents.)

California's Story is told for grammar grade children by two of the leading scholars of the state, Professor H. E. Bolton, of the University of California, and Ephriam B. Adams, of Stanford University. (Allyn & Bacon, New York, 1922; 216 pp.) The style is simple, but often the narrative is too condensed and lacking in concreteness to make the strongest appeal to children. Numerous excellent pictures, chiefly from photographs, add greatly to the attractiveness and usefulness of the book. The characteristic pride of Californians in their state is not missing. The importance of this imperial state in the history of the West and of the nation should give the attractive little book a place in the schools in all parts of the country.

Everyday Citizenship, by Frederick F. Blachly and Miriam E. Oatman (Charles E. Merrill Company, New York, 1922; 252 pp.) is another book on Community Civics intended for the use of adolescent pupils. To quote the authors' preface, its purpose is "to develop a body of citizens who consider the workings of their government and take an active part in its undertakings," but the realization of even these aims, incomplete as they are, is not helped by a text of the "manual" type, made up of generalizations without sufficient attention to the concrete experiences out of which they grow. The book is essentially a text on civil government developed from the point of view of function (wherein the authors include some regulation community civics material), and then of organization. There are better texts available for the use of junior high school students.

M. McA.

Sources of English History for the Seventeenth Century in the University of Minnesota Library, with a Selection of Secondary Material, by James Thayer Gerould (Research Publications of the University of Minnesota: Bibliographical Series, Number 1. University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. 565 pp. 1921. \$4.00), lays all students of seventeenth century England under obligations by informing them of this valuable historical collection. Our gratitude must also extend to Professor Notestein for building up much of it. Modeled somewhat upon Gross' invaluable bibliography, it covers the years 1603 to 1688. The general works are carefully classified by

reigns and by periods, but the arrangement of the bulk of the materials by years makes it very accessible. The title entries are very complete, and it is interesting to note that for 1603 there are nine items; for 1625, twelve; for 1638, only three; for 1641, one hundred seventy-seven, covering eighteen pages; 1660 has one hundred eighty-seven, and 1688 one hundred sixty-nine. The entire work contains 4,442 items, compared with 3,234 in the original edition of Gross. Other universities might well take a similar method of revealing the resources of their libraries for the various historical fields.—WILLIAM THOMAS MORGAN.

Books on History and Government Published in the United States from Sept. 29, to Oct. 27, 1923.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH. D.
AMERICAN HISTORY

- Adams, James T. *Revolutionary New England, 1691-1776*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press. 483 pp. \$5.00.
Cook, James H. *Fifty years on the old frontier*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 310 pp. \$4.00.
Dow, George I., and Edmonds, John H. *The pirates of the New England coast, 1630-1730*. Salem, Mass.: Marine Research Society. 416 pp. \$7.50.
Garland, Hamlin. *The book of the American Indian*. N. Y.: Harper. 274 pp. \$6.00.
Cleland, Robert G. *One hundred years of the Monroe Doctrine*. Los Angeles: Times-Mirror Press. 127 pp. \$1.00.
Graham, Stephen. *In quest of Eldorado*. N. Y.: Appleton. 334 pp. \$2.00.
Nichols, Roy F. *The democratic machine, 1850-1854*. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 248 pp. \$2.50.
Smedes, Henrietta R. *North Carolina and the United States, 1866-1922*. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. Press. 51 pp.

ANCIENT HISTORY

- Henderson, Bernard W. *The life and principate of the Emperor Hadrian, A. D. 76-138*. N. Y.: Brentano's. 315 pp. \$4.50.
Smith, Grafton E. *Tutankhamen and the discovery of his tomb*. N. Y.: Dutton. 133 pp. \$2.00.
Van Loon, Hendrik W. *The story of the Bible*. N. Y.: Boni & Liveright. 477 pp. \$5.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

- Arrowsmith, R. S. *The prelude to the Reformation*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 238 pp. \$3.00.
Notestein, Wallace. *The journal of Sir Simonds D'Ewes from the beginning of the Long Parliament to the opening of the trial of the Earl of Stafford*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 615 pp. \$7.00.
Van Tyne, Claude. *India in ferment*. N. Y.: Appleton. 264 pp. \$2.00.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Collins, Ross W. *Catholicism and the second French Republic, 1848-1852*. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 360 pp. (12 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
Foster, Herbert D., and others. *A syllabus of modern European history, 1500-1799* (9th edition). Hanover, N. H.: Dartmouth Bk. Store. 44 pp. 50 cents.
Gorgolini, Dott Pietro. *The Fascist movement in Italian life*. Boston: Little Brown. 217 pp. \$3.00.
Griffis, William E. *The story of the Walloons*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 310 pp. \$2.00.
Hayes, Carleton J. H., and Moon, T. P. *Teachers' manual to accompany modern history*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 61 pp.
Turner, Edward R. *Europe, 1450-1789*. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page & Co. 888 pp. \$3.50.
Viroubova, Anna. *Memoirs of the Russian court*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 410 pp. \$3.50.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Hanson, Major Joseph M., editor. *The world war through the stereoscope*. Meadville, Pa.: Keystone View Co. 478 pp. \$2.00.
- Mattern, Johannes. *Bavaria and the Reich*. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 137 pp. \$1.25.
- Morris, Ira N. *From an American legation*. N. Y.: Knopf. 298 pp. \$4.00.

MIDDLE-AGE HISTORY

- Adams, George B. *Civilization during the Middle Ages*. Revised edition. N. Y.: Scribner. 461 pp. \$2.75.

MISCELLANEOUS

- Bradlee, Francis B. C. *Piracy in the West Indies and its suppression, 1820-1832*. Salem, Mass.: Essex Institute. 220 pp. \$5.00.
- Salmon, Lucy M. *The newspaper and the historian*. N. Y.: Oxford. 559 pp.

BIOGRAPHY

- Harlow, Ralph V. *Samuel Adams, promoter of the American Revolution*. N. Y.: Holt. 363 pp. \$3.00.
- Washburn, R. M. *Calvin Coolidge*. Boston: Trull Maynard. 150 pp. \$1.50.
- Corti, Egon C. *Leopold I of Belgium*. N. Y.: Brentano's. 307 pp. \$4.50.
- Godden, G. M. *Mussolini, the birth of the new democracy*. N. Y.: Kenedy. 176 pp. \$2.00.
- Hanbury-Williams, Sir John. *The emperor Nicholas II as I knew him*. N. Y.: Dutton. 282 pp. \$6.00.
- Charnwood, Lord. *Theodore Roosevelt*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press. 232 pp. \$2.50.
- Gerwig, George W. *Washington, the young leader*. N. Y.: Scribner. 156 pp. 88 cents.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Hughan, Jessie W. *A study of international government*. N. Y.: Crowell. 420 pp. 2.75.
- Kerr, Philip H., and Curtis, Lionel. *The prevention of war*. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 170 pp. \$2.50.
- Martin, Charles E., and George, William H. *Representative modern constitutions*. Los Angeles: Times-Mirror Press. 241 pp. \$2.25.
- Munro, William B. *Municipal government and administration, Vol. 2, administration*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 523 pp. \$3.00.
- Scott, William E. *Citizenship for new Americans*. St. Paul, Minn.: Scott-Mitchell Pub. Co. 218 pp. \$1.50.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Freedom Reconsidered*, II. James H. Robinson (*Harper's*, November).
- The Fact Basis of a History, Geography, and Civics Curriculum*. Charles Pendleton and Carleton W. Washburne (*Journal of Educational Research*, October).
- Teaching History*. H. G. Wells (*Journal of National Education*, September).
- Current Fallacies about History*. Flinders Petrie (*Ancient Egypt*, 1923, part III).
- The Place of Ancient History in the Curriculum*. Elizabeth McConathy (*Educational Review*, November).
- Moses and the Luxor Discoveries*. Rev. A. Graham Eldridge (*Holborn Review*, October).
- Ancient Sparta*. A. M. Woodward (*History*, October).
- A Constitution of the United States of Greece*. M. Cary (*Classical Quarterly*, July-October).
- The Historical Element in Christianity*. Guy Kendall (*Hibbert Journal*, October).
- New Light from Egypt on the Early Reign of Hadrian*. William D. Gray (*American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literatures*, October).
- The Hanseatic League*. H. Ross Clyne (*Manchester Quarterly*, October).
- Ypres, 1658: a Little-Remembered Episode*. Maj. A. F. Becke (*Army Quarterly*, October).
- "Lost Lives" of St. Louis of Toulouse*. Margaret R. Toynbee (*English Historical Review*, October).

The Problem of Alsace. Maurice Wilkinson (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

Federal Characteristics of the Swiss and American Unions, II. Charles Borgeaud (*Constitutional Review*, October).

The Suppression of Piracy in the West Indies (continued). Francis B. C. Bradlee (*Historical Collections of the Essex Institute*, October).

The Constitutionality of the Subsoil. Fernando González Roa (*Inter-America*, October). The historical and legal grounds of the present Mexican constitution.

The Agrarian Policy of Perú: Notes for an Economic History of the Republic. César A. Ugarte (*Inter-America*, October).

Rafael M. Merchán. Rogelio González Ricardo (*Inter-America*, October). The story of the revolutionary influence of a Cuban educator and journalist.

Characteristics of Bolshevik Diplomacy. Alfred L. P. Dennis (*North American Review*, November).

Monthly Survey of World Events (Current History, November). A new department controlled by the following: A. B. Hart, chairman; Harry T. Collings, Arthur L. Cross, Richard H. Dabney, William S. Davis, Charles W. Hackett, Albert H. Lybyer, Frederic A. Ogg, Alexander Petrunkevitch, William R. Shepherd, Lily R. Taylor, Payson J. Treat.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE

The Teaching of History in Schools. Nowell Smith (*History*, October). III. Sherborne.

The Future of the British Empire. H. G. Wells (*Empire Review*, October).

The Jewels Lost in the Wash. A. V. Jenkinson (*History*, October). The loss of King John's treasure in 1220.

The English Bishops at the Lateran Council of 1139. William Hunt (*English Historical Review*, October).

The Advocates of the Court of Arches. W. Senior (*Law Quarterly Review*, October).

Richard II. and the Death of the Duke of Gloucester. R. L. Atkinson (*English Historical Review*, October).

The Papal Schism of 1378 and the English Province of the Order of Cluny. Rose Graham (*English Historical Review*, October).

The Elizabethan Persecution. Egerton Beck (*Dublin Review*, October, November, December).

The Elections for the Long Parliament, 1640. R. N. Kershaw (*English Historical Review*, October).

The Recruiting of the Long Parliament, 1643-7. R. N. Kershaw (*History*, October).

The Redemption of the Five Boroughs. Allen Mawer (*English Historical Review*, October).

The Hanau Controversy in 1744 and the Fall of Carteret. Richard Lodge (*English Historical Review*, October).

A British Dragoon in the American Revolution. Maj.-Gen. William H. Carter (*Cavalry Journal*, October). Lieut.-Col. Banastre Tarleton.

Brougham, Lord Grey, and Canning, 1815-30. H. W. C. Davis (*English Historical Review*, October).

Lord Morley's Place in History. H. W. Massingham (*Current History*, November).

The Influence of Foreign States on British Strategy. Lieut.-Col. E. M. S. Charles (*Army Quarterly*, October).

The Rhodes Scholarships. Ian D. Colvin (*Empire Review*, October).

The Captivity of James I. E. W. M. Balfour-Melville (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

Scottish Masters and Students at Poitiers in the Second Half of the Sixteenth Century. Jean Plattard (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

Lieutenant-Colonel James Steuart, A Jacobite Lieutenant-Governor of Edinburgh Castle. Maj. K. A. Moody-Steuart (*Scottish Historical Review*, October).

The Teaching of Modern Irish History. Rev. T. Corcoran (*Irish Monthly*, October).

Irishmen in the Thirty Years' War. Rev. Patrick Nolan (*Irish Ecclesiastical Review*, October).

The Irish Free Trade Agitation of 1779. George O'Brien (*English Historical Review*, October).

The Emancipation of the Slaves at the Cape. Alan F. Hattersley (*History*, October).

THE GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

The Problem of War-History. Cyril Falls. (*Adelphi*, October).

Notes on Foreign (non-British) War Books (*Army Quarterly*, October).

The Empire's Effort in the War. John Buchan (*Empire Review*, October).

Critical Analysis of the Operations of the Third, Fourth and Fifth French Armies and British Army from about August 15 to September 15, 1914. Col. Weston P. Chamberlain (*Coast Artillery Journal*, October).

With the Tenth Field Artillery at the Second Battle of the Marne. Maj. J. W. Anderson (*Field Artillery Journal*, September, October).

The British Cavalry in Palestine and Syria (continued). Lieut.-Col. Edward Davis (*Cavalry Journal*, October). General Liman von Sanders on the Dardanelles Campaign. (*Army Quarterly*, October).

From Rumbo to the Rovuma: the Odyssey of "One" Column in East Africa in 1917. Col. G. M. Orr (*Army Quarterly*, October).

Recollections of the R. F. C. during the Great War. Rothesay S. Wortley (*Army Quarterly*, October).

The Development of Artillery during and after the World War. Maj. W. Y. C. Schuurman (*Field Artillery Journal*, September-October).

THE UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

History versus National Legend. R. Gordon Wasson (*Landmark*, October). Discussion of the American textbook agitation.

The Sixteenth Annual Meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. Benjamin F. Shambaugh (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, September).

Is County History Worth While? Arthur L. Cross (*Michigan History Magazine*, July-October).

Michigan's Most Ancient Industry: the Pre-Historic Mines and Miners of Isle Royale. William P. F. Ferguson (*Michigan History Magazine*, July-October).

California and Pacific Coast History Materials. Lewis B. Lesly (*Grizzly Bear*, November).

The Expedition of Panfilo de Narvaez. Gonzalo Fernandez Oveido y Valdez (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, October). Edited by Hubert Davenport.

French Intrusions and Indian Uprisings in Georgia and South Carolina, 1577-1580. Mary Ross (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, September).

American Colonial Architecture. Joseph Jackson (*Building*, November). VII. In the French Colonies.

Notes on a Colonial Free School in Anne Arundel County, with Side Lights upon the Early Education of Johns Hopkins. Daniel R. Randall (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, September).

The Life of Thomas Johnson (continued). Edward S. Delaplaine (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, September).

The Continental Express Rider. John C. Fitzpatrick (*D. A. R. Magazine*, November).

A Biographical Notice of the Duc de Lauzun, Commander of the Troop of Cavalry which became known as "Lauzun's Legion" in the Revolutionary War. Cornelius Stevenson (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, October).

The Real Declaration of Independence: a Study of Colonial History under a Modern Theory. Henry Leffman (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, October). "The actual step towards independence was taken by the First Continental Congress."

The Formation of the First State Constitutions, III. Editor (*Constitutional Review*, October).

James Alfred Pearce (continued). Bernard C. Steiner (*Maryland Historical Magazine*, September).

Our Vice-Presidents and the Method of their Election. Robert M. Hughes (*Constitutional Review*, October).

The Second Officer in the Government. William H. Fleming (*Annals of Iowa*, January).

Congress and the Supreme Court. Alexander S. Lanier (*North American Review*, November).

Georgia Appointments by President Washington. Warren Grice (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, September).

Georgia's Debt to Monmouth County, New Jersey. William W. Gordon (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, June).

Salem Vessels and their Voyages (continued). George G. Putnam (*Historical Collections of the Essex Institute*, October).

The Yazoo Fraud. Samuel B. Adams (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, June).

Notes on the Colonization of Texas. Eugene C. Barker (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, September; *Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, October).

Travel in Early Days. O. W. Robinson (*Michigan History Magazine*, July-October).

Negroes in Domestic Service in the United States. Elizabeth R. Haynes (*Journal of Negro History*, October).

Salem and the War of 1812. William D. Chapple (*Historical Collections of the Essex Institute*, October).

New Mexico and the Texan Santa Fé Expedition. William C. Binkley (*Southwestern Historical Quarterly*, October).

Historical Work in Michigan (*Michigan History Magazine*, July-October).

Newspapers of Washington Territory (continued). Edmond S. Meany (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, October).

Cape Disappointment in History. Barbara C. Elliott (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, October).

The New Journalism in Missouri, III. Walter B. Stevens (*Missouri Historical Review*, October).

The Story of the Bald Knobbers. A. M. Haswell (*Missouri Historical Review*, October).

Journalism of Northwest Iowa. Charles Aldrich (*Annals of Iowa*, January).

The Movement of Negroes from the East to the Gulf States from 1830 to 1850. A. A. Taylor (*Journal of Negro History*, October).

Lotteries in Pennsylvania prior to 1833. Asa E. Martin (*Pennsylvania Magazine of History and Biography*, October).

James Dickson: a Fillibuster in Minnesota in 1836. Grace L. Nute (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, September).

Lieutenant Jefferson Davis. Dorothy MacBride (*Palimpsest*, October).

Trans-Mississippi Railroads during the Fifties. Robert E. Riegel (*Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, September).

Jayhawkers in Missouri, 1858-1863, III. Hildegard R. Herklotz (*Missouri Historical Review*, October).

The Atlanta Campaign (continued). Thomas R. Hay (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, June).

The Campaign and Battle of Chickamauga. Thomas R. Hay (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, September).

The Artillery Mechanics of Gettysburg. Lieut.-Col. Jennings C. Wise (*Field Artillery Journal*, November, December).

The American Pulpit on the Death of Lincoln. William E. Barton (*Open Court*, September).

Senator Cole and the Purchase of Alaska. Victor J. Farrar (*Washington Historical Quarterly*, October).

The Missouri Pacific Railroad to 1879. R. E. Riegel (*Missouri Historical Review*, October).

Crawford Williamson Long and the Discovery of Anesthesia. Frank K. Boland (*Georgia Historical Quarterly*, June).

A History of High School Legislation in Oregon to 1910. Charles A. Howard (*Quarterly of Oregon Historical Society*, September).

Kelly's Army. Donald L. McMurtry (*Palimpsest*, October).

The industrial army piloted from San Francisco to Washington in 1894 by Gen. Chas. T. Kelly.

The United States Paramount in the Caribbean. Eldridge Colby (*Current History*, November).

Philippine Progress under American Rule. Cecilia W. Farwell (*Current History*, November).

Experimental Curriculum-Making in the Social Studies

REPORT OF A STUDY BY PROFESSOR J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL

SCOPE AND CHARACTER OF THE INVESTIGATION

On recommendation of their Educational Research Committee, the Directors of the Commonwealth Fund in the latter part of February, 1923, approved a financial grant "for an analytical study of a limited number of outstanding experiments, or courses, in the social studies in our school systems. The primary object of this would be to prepare a report, or a series of reports, upon a number of these activities, which would be distributed among the teachers of the social studies in order to acquaint them with what is being done in other places." The Commonwealth Fund entered into an agreement with the National Council for the Social Studies, according to which the treasurer of the National Council would receive the funds appropriated by the Commonwealth Fund and supervise their disbursement for the purpose of such an investigation. In a letter to the officers of the National Council, Professor Max Farrand, Adviser in Educational Research to the Commonwealth Fund, said: "There have been various suggestions made, but the Committee has held firmly to the point of view that one of the most desirable things which could be done was to have a study made of a limited number of fairly typical cases of new or experimental courses of study that were actually in operation."

A tentative list of "a limited number of outstanding experiments and activities in the social studies" of which "an analytical study" should be undertaken, was agreed upon between Professor Farrand and the Investigator; with the qualification that "whether any others shall be added or perhaps substituted for some of those suggested will depend upon the way things develop as the study progresses." It was further agreed that it would be desirable to use the incidental opportunities of country-wide travel (required by the special purpose of the investigation) to observe classroom procedures of an unconventional character and pupil activities or special devices directly correlated with teaching, and to note as far as possible the views and plans of progressively inclined teachers and educators, and the general tendencies in the teaching of the social studies. It was recognized, however, that any attempt to generalize about such matters would have to be frankly "impressionistic," and that any report on such matters would be left to the discretion of the Investigator.¹ Much the same thing would probably be true of work in the elementary schools since the tentative list of outstanding enterprises for study was confined almost entirely to junior and senior high schools or to comprehensive plans for continuous work through the twelve grades of the school.

It was necessary to limit the scope of an investigation strictly to the field of the social studies. The wider field of civic education would include extra-curricular activities, student organizations, school management and discipline, and the like. Aside from

the fact that a study had recently been undertaken in the fields mentioned, it was regarded as entirely impractical to include so large a field in the present inquiry of the Commonwealth Fund.

Another important question that had to be decided was whether the reports of the Investigator should be descriptive or critical. However desirable it might be to have evaluations of the undertakings studied, it had to be recognized that no generally accepted standards or scientific tests were available, and it seemed questionable whether an investigation conducted under such auspices ought to exploit the views of one observer, not to mention the undue extension of time that would be necessary to justify such attempted appraisals. It was decided that the report should be "descriptive and analytical, rather than critical." In some cases, however, it has seemed obviously desirable to raise questions and to indicate different points of view, but this has been done in a manner as objective and impersonal as possible.

In view of the fact that less than half the school year would be available for visiting, in some cases much less, it was possible to undertake only a rather hasty preliminary inquiry. It is believed, however, that this inquiry was made in such a way as to render it improbable that any important enterprise in the teaching of social studies was overlooked. A form letter asking for information was sent out during the month of March to about four hundred persons, including the superintendents of all the states, the superintendents of all cities of thirty thousand or more population (and to some smaller cities), to professors of education in a number of colleges and universities, to representative normal schools, and to a number of supervisors, principals, department heads, and others. Diligent personal inquiry was also made at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence at Cleveland. It proved to be possible to make a personal visit to almost every city or institution which seemed to hold out any promise of having work of a markedly unusual character in the social studies.

This report is based upon personal observation and conference, supplemented by the use of all available documentary material, manuscript as well as printed. Numerous quotations from manuscript documents, in a number of cases especially prepared, are included. The states visited include New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Kansas, Missouri, Colorado, and California, and one or two others will be added to the list before the continuation of this report is published in the next issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*.

The basis of selection for the subjects treated in this report, as already indicated, is significant departure from common practice and especially work of an experimental character, not the personal appraisal of anyone connected with the enterprise. Nor

should the length and order of the articles be regarded as an index of comparative importance, since these factors are influenced by convenience in exposition, by the stage of progress which an undertaking has reached, and by the amount of available material. We have tried to find and study enterprises based upon experiment and research, even though they might not qualify in the strictest scientific sense of those terms, and have sought to learn what the special workers in the field are thinking and doing, and what seem to be the character and direction of change. Whether the proposed changes are on the whole or in special cases desirable or undesirable, the reader may judge for himself.

It is recognized also that "new" is a purely relative term. The well-informed student of the history of teaching in these special fields is nearly always able to point out precedents and forerunners. The enthusiast, anxious to pose as a progressive, readily persuades himself that he has made an original con-

tribution by adopting a new name for some ancient device. We have tried to steer a middle course and to find and study those enterprises that are sufficiently out of the ordinary to give some indication of the tendencies in the teaching of the social studies.

The Investigator takes this opportunity to make grateful acknowledgment of the courtesy and kindness with which he has been treated throughout his travels. With a single exception, not one official of any rank has been too busy for conference, and many have given time and effort beyond anything that could have been reasonably expected. School people everywhere have seemed anxious to offer all possible facilities for the study.

¹ Later, in October, 1923, a survey under the direction of a committee nominated by the American Historical Association, supported by a grant from the Institute of Educational Research of Teachers College, Columbia University, was undertaken by Professor Edgar Dawson. This survey will provide statistical information about conditions and tendencies in the teaching of history in schools.

I. Social Studies in the University High School of the University of Chicago

There are eleven grades instead of the usual twelve in the "Laboratory Schools" of the University of Chicago, for "economy in the process of general education" is the broad purpose of experimentation. In the field of social studies experiments that involve the curriculum, methods of teaching and study, correlation of studies, and adaptation to individuals, have been in progress for several years. Mr. H. C. Hill is head of the department of social science in the high school, Professor R. M. Tryon of the department of history and other social studies in the school of education.

THE COURSE OF STUDY

It is a general principle accepted for all fields of work that curriculum content must be determined primarily and in its larger aspects by social needs, and from an analysis of the needs of society school objectives may be determined. It then becomes necessary to test in the classroom the treatment of subjects and details. The program for the social studies in grades VIII to XI now taught in the University High School has developed after four or five years of experimental teaching and revision. It begins with a survey of present life and problems, proceeds to a story of the progress of mankind since the Stone Age, and culminates in a study of current institutions and problems:

- I. Community Life and Civic Problems, Combined with English (one year).
- II. World History—"A Unified and Coherent View of the Evolution of Human Progress."
 1. Survey of civilization from primitive times to the middle of the eighteenth century (one year).
 2. Modern history, combining European and American, since the middle of the eighteenth century (one year).
- III. Modern Problems; or, American Institutions (one year).

(Ancient History is offered primarily to meet college entrance requirements and is not part of the foregoing sequence.)

COMMUNITY LIFE AND CIVIC PROBLEMS

The conception underlying this course "is the biblical proposition that no man liveth to himself alone." It attempts to show the pupil his dependence on others and the dependence of others upon him as "the most important facts in human life," and presents for study the more important institutions and problems of modern life. The materials were first tested in the classroom with mimeographed sheets and after three years of testing in a number of schools they were thoroughly revised and are now available in Mr. Hill's textbook, *Community Life and Civic Problems* (Ginn and Company). It is therefore unnecessary to present an extended outline of this course. Its main features are as follows:

- I. GROUP LIFE: Myself and others—family—school—church—community.
- II. PROBLEMS OF THE COMMUNITY: Children of the melting pot—health of the community—police affairs—fire protection and prevention—recreation—civic beauty—the handicapped.
- III. INDUSTRIAL SOCIETY: Work and the worker—exchange of goods—communication and transportation—labor and capital.
- IV. GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS: Local—state—national—political parties and the ballot.

(The combination of this work with the English course will be treated in another section.)

THE EVOLUTION OF HUMAN PROGRESS

The two years' sequence in history has been planned with the conviction that adequate training for citizenship requires an acquaintance with the story of how mankind has developed from the earliest times to the present. Not only is modern history

valuable, but ancient and mediæval are needed to explain the origin of much of our art, philosophy, religious belief, law, and other institutions. In both the early and the modern periods there is comparison, illustration, and application in terms of the life of today, and particular attention is directed to "community life" in other times and countries. The chief movements and the most significant features are treated topically, with special attention to the ideas of development and continuity.

The "Survey" is composed of "a series of cross-sectional studies of the chief phases of human progress from the earliest times to the middle of the eighteenth century." Its particular purpose is "to give the pupils a clear conception of the great movements of history and an adequate understanding of typical civilizations of the past." A narrative thread connects the cross-sectional surveys. The idea appears to be practically identical with Biedermann's plan of *Kulturbilder*.¹ The large study-units generally include both narration and description. The course is not prescribed for all students, but they are strongly recommended to elect it, and about 40 per cent. of the sophomores do so. The modern history, combining European and American, includes among its topics, "Expansion of Industrial Nations," and particularly stresses those phases of the period which particularly concern the United States.

PART I. SURVEY OF CIVILIZATION.

- I. Primitive life and oriental civilization.
 1. Primitive man.
 2. Oriental lands and peoples.
 3. Egypt, the cradle of civilization.
 - (a) Political development.
 - (b) Egyptian civilization: the Nile Valley—the inundation, irrigation, agriculture, river traffic, trading centers, the bazaar, the craftsmen, the nobles, the Pharaoh, the warrior class, the priesthood, the temples, worship, the sacred books, hieroglyphics and writing, the scribes, architecture, the plastic arts, engineering, the sciences.
 4. Features of oriental civilization.
 5. Westward march of oriental civilization.
- II. Greece—a world enlightened.
 1. Expansion of the Greek world.
 - (a) The Aegean home.
 - (b) Colonial expansion.
 - (c) Commerce and industry.
 - (d) Rise of democracy.
 - (e) The Persian war.
 - (f) The Athenian empire.
 2. Athenian civilization: Attica and Athens—the land, farming, the market-place, shops and the crafts, the port town, warehouses, factories, slavery, classes of the people, the leisure class, open-air life, places of resort, education, direct government, discussion, public opinion, Athens as an art center, the acropolis, public buildings, sculpture, the sophists, philosophy, writers, books and readers, the drama, history, oratory, philosophy, the academy, the first university.
 3. Eastward march of Greek civilization.
 - (a) Rise of Macedon.
 - (b) Conquest of the East.
 - (c) The Macedonian empires.
 - (d) The Alexandrian age.
 4. Influence on Rome.
- III. Rome—a world consolidated.
 1. Growth of the Roman power.
 - (a) Rome and Italy.
 - (1) Environment.
 - (2) Early institutions.
 - (3) Expansion in Italy.
 - (b) Mediterranean expansion.
 - (1) Duel with Carthage.
 - (2) Eastern wars.
 - (c) End of the republic.
 - (1) Effects of conquest.
 - (2) Struggle for reform.
 - (3) Rise of the military power.
 - (4) Establishment of empire.
 2. Roman life and civilization.
 - (a) Life of the Romans: the imperial city—population, sanitary conditions, water supply, fire and police, administration, day of the noble, position of woman, education, amusements, clubs, books and libraries, travel, country life, industry, petty trade, money and coinage, capital and investment.
 - (b) The world under Roman rule: area and population, the rim of barbarism, the frontiers, the army, the provinces, civil service, law and justice, the census and taxation, the municipal centers, communication, the Roman roads, waterways, centers of trade and industry, manufacturing, the guilds, slavery, social classes, class feeling, philanthropy, social evils, morality.
 - (c) Maturity of ancient civilization: unifying influences, growth of Roman world, Greco-Roman civilization, heritage of the modern world.
 3. Breaking up of the Roman world.
 - (a) Causes of decline.
 - (b) Growth of despotism.
 - (c) Rise of the church.
- IV. The Middle Age—transition to modern civilization.
 1. The Dark Ages.
 - (a) The barbarian migrations.
 - (b) Rise of the Franks.
 - (c) Empire of Charlemagne.
 - (d) The Invasions of the Northmen.
 2. Mediæval life and civilization.
 - (a) Feudalism, raids and invasions, self-help, feudal relations, lord and vassal, mutual obligations, the feudal court, feudal justice, feudal warfare, the feudal army, the castle living conditions, training the knight, jousts, and tournaments, chivalry, the manor, tillage, serfs and villeins, the village, life of the peasants, self-sufficiency of the manor.
 - (b) The church: church organization—the Pope, the clergy, the councils, the monastic orders, monastic discipline, the monastery, occupations of the monks, services to civilization, the parish priests, the church as a social center, church worship, the sacraments, excommunication and interdict, the church courts, heresy, the temporal power of the Pope, the rise of the friars, the Franciscans.
 - (c) Life in the towns: growth of towns—population, walls, sanitation, streets, lighting, police, public buildings, government, dwellings, furniture, food, and clothing, schools, great teachers, universities, studies, use of Latin, mediæval superstitions, mediæval art, the cathedral builders.
- V. The crusading movement.
 1. The Eastern situation.
 - (a) Rise of the Saracens.
 - (b) Civilization of the Saracens.
 - (c) The Byzantine empire and its civilization.
 2. The Crusades.
 - (a) Causes of the crusades—conditions in Western Europe.
 - (b) The first crusade.
 - (c) Episodes from the later crusades.
 - (d) Results—to Western Europe.
- VI. Beginnings of the modern world—the expansion of commerce and the great awakening.

1. Rise of the towns.
2. Commerce and communication, the merchant guilds, the craft guilds, fairs and markets, trade routes, traffic and transit, money and coinage, banking, associations and companies, improvements in navigation, trade with the Indies, exploration, voyage, discoveries.
3. The great awakening: cities of Italy, intellectual awakening, revival of classical study, humanism, use of the vernacular, great writers, revival of the arts, the old masters, rise of modern science, the great scientists, inventions, printing, gunpowder, the compass, widening of the horizon, discontent with the church, forerunners of reform.
4. Rise of modern nations from mediæval origins.

VII. Colonial expansion and the new world.

1. Contest for colonial empire.
 - (a) England and France as European powers.
 - (b) Colonial domains of the French and English.
 - (c) Resources and colonial policy.
 - (d) Struggle for the mastery.
 - (e) Outcome of the struggle.
2. Colonial life and civilization: conditions—farming, labor, slavery, resources, water-power, industry, fisheries, commerce, navigation acts, exports and imports, money, living conditions, furniture, food, clothing, amusements, travel, roads, the church, sects, liberalism, education, schools, colleges, books, newspapers, reading public, postal system.
3. Independence and union.
 - (a) The Revolution.
 - (b) Union and federation.

PART II. MODERN HISTORY.

I. The Industrial Revolution.

1. Minimal essentials.
 - (a) The domestic system of industry: manufacturing, trade, commerce, transportation, communication, agriculture.
 - (b) The development of the textile industries and the coming of the factory.
 - (c) Improvements in transportation, 1760-1830: roads, canals, steamboats, railroads.
 - (d) Chief results: economics, social, political.
2. Supplementary projects.
 - (a) The early history of the steel industry.
 - (b) The agricultural revolution.
 - (c) The development of mining.
 - (d) Lives of inventors (select one).
 - (e) The beginning of the industrial revolution in America.
 - (f) Early socialistic experiments.

II. The French Revolution.

1. Minimal essentials.
 - (a) Conditions under the old régime: social classes, autocracy and inefficiency of government, privileges and abuses.
 - (b) The intellectual revolution: discoveries in the natural sciences and their influence; philosophers in the social sciences—Voltaire, Montesquieu, Rousseau.
 - (c) French Revolution, 1789-95: financial troubles of the king; influence of the American Revolution; epochal events—Oath of the Tennis Court, fall of the Bastille, Declaration of the Rights of Man; chief reforms of the National Assembly and the Convention.
 - (d) Napoleon, 1795-1815: outbreak of the war in Europe; the rise of Napoleon; the spread of revolutionary ideas and reforms throughout Europe; effect of events on the United States—political factions, XYZ affair, Alien and Sedition Acts, war with France, Louisiana purchase.
 - (e) Heritage of the Revolution: political, social, intellectual.
2. Supplementary projects.
 - (a) The benevolent despots.
 - (b) Famous leaders of the Revolution.
 - (c) The Reign of Terror.

- (d) The career of Napoleon.
- (e) The Continental System.
- (f) Jefferson's embargo policy.

III. The Era of Metternich.

1. Minimal essentials.
 - (a) The Congress of Vienna and its work: international problems, composition and activities of the Congress, the treaties.
 - (b) Metternich and reaction in Austria, Germany, France, and Spain, 1815-30.
 - (c) The Holy Alliance and the Monroe Doctrine.
 - (d) The revolutions of 1830 and 1848: causes, characteristics, outcome, effect on emigration to the United States.
2. Supplementary projects.
 - (a) Prominent leaders of the period.
 - (b) The rise of Prussia.
 - (c) The revolutions in Spanish America, 1808-21.
 - (d) The industrial revolution in France or Germany.

IV. The development of nationality.

1. Minimal essentials.
 - (a) The second French Empire: establishment, domestic policy of Napoleon III, foreign policy and ambitions.
 - (b) The unification of Germany: forces for and against union, Zollverein, Bismarck and the blood and iron policy, establishment of German Empire.
 - (c) The unification of Italy: obstacles, chief leaders in movement, diplomacy and reforms of Cavour, establishment of Kingdom of Italy, acquisition of Venetia, Rome, and Italia irredenta.
2. Supplementary projects.
 - (a) Life of Cavour.
 - (b) Life of Bismarck.
 - (c) The rise of Louis Napoleon.
 - (d) The French Mexican Expedition.
 - (e) The internal policy of Napoleon III.
 - (f) Louis Blanc and the "National Workshops."
 - (g) The authorship of the Monroe Doctrine.

V. The slavery controversy.

1. Minimal essentials.
 - (a) Early history of slavery in America, 1619-1819; slavery in the colonies, decline during the Revolutionary period, effect of the cotton gin.
 - (b) Slavery as an institution: family life, labor conditions, discipline, slave trade, recreation, economic advantages and disadvantages.
 - (c) Struggles over the extension of slavery, 1819-60: Missouri Compromise, 1820; abolitionist movement; Compromise of 1850; Kansas-Nebraska Act, 1854; Dred Scott decision, 1857; Lincoln-Douglas debates; election of 1860.
 - (d) The Civil War and emancipation, 1861-65; comparison of the North and the South, grand strategy of the war, Emancipation Proclamation and the Thirteenth Amendment, victory of the Unionists—comparison with unification of Italy and of Germany.
 - (e) The reading of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* (or some other historical novel relating to the topic) and a biography or the memoirs or autobiography of one of the notable personages of the time.
2. Supplementary projects.
 - (a) Religious beliefs of the slaves.
 - (b) The underground railway.
 - (c) The Christian Sanitary Commission.
 - (d) Lincoln's attitude on slavery.
 - (e) John Quincy Adams and the "Gag Resolution."
 - (f) Synopses and criticisms of biographies, personal narratives, or historical novels dealing with the topic.

VI. The westward movement.

1. Minimal essentials.

- (a) The settlement of the Middle West, c. 1775-1840: historic background—early explorers and settlers, settlement of Tennessee and Kentucky, occupation of the Northwest and the Southwest, movement across the Mississippi, foreign immigration and its effect.
- (b) Life on the frontier: homes, occupations, education, religion, manners, amusements, ideals.
- (c) The development of transportation: steamboat, roads, canals, railroads.
- (d) The disappearance of the frontier and the development of the conservation movement: significance of the frontier in American history, waste of natural resources, origin and growth of the conservation movement, present-day activities in conservation.

2. Supplementary projects.

- (a) The development of communication.
- (b) The early land policy of the United States.
- (c) Agricultural machinery and the occupation of the West.
- (d) Pioneer mining and mining settlements.
- (e) Early settlements in Illinois.
- (f) The building of the Northern Pacific Railroad.
- (g) The Granger movement.

VII. Expansion of the industrial nations.

1. Minimal essentials.

- (a) The Industrial Revolution and world-expansion.
- (b) The partition of Africa: reasons, activities of Great Britain, France, Germany, and other countries.
- (c) The opening of Asia to the Western world: India, China, Japan, Russia, attitude of the United States—the open door.
- (d) World-expansion of the United States: continental growth, Alaska, Hawaii, Samoa, Philippines and Porto Rico, Panama, Virgin Islands.

2. Supplementary projects.

- (a) Livingstone and Stanley in Africa.
- (b) Perry and the opening of Japan.
- (c) The "open-door" policy.
- (d) Railway construction in the Far East.
- (e) The rubber trade in the Congo region.
- (f) Japan and Korea.
- (g) The United States in Haiti or Nicaragua.

VIII. The world-war and world-reconstruction.

1. Minimal essentials.

- (a) Background of the war: industrialism, colonial expansion, the alliances, rivalry between Germany and Great Britain, diplomatic crises—Morocco, Serbia.
- (b) Immediate causes of the war: Serbia, Belgium.
- (c) Submarine warfare and the entrance of the United States into the struggle.
- (d) Reconstruction: Peace Conference at Versailles, League of Nations, Limitation of Armaments Conference at Washington.

2. Supplementary projects.

- (a) Military phases of the war in Europe.
- (b) The war on the sea.
- (c) The war in Asia or Africa.
- (d) Why the United States entered the war.
- (e) South America and the war.
- (f) The work of the League of Nations.
- (g) Germany and reparations.

MODERN PROBLEMS, OR AMERICAN INSTITUTIONS

The details for this course have not yet been worked out and a definite outline therefore cannot be given. Its general purpose is to study the institutions and unsettled civic problems of our time, and to complete the process of linking the past with the present. The course was taught for a year or two as Modern Social Problems by an instructor whose dominant interest was sociology and in a similar way at another time by an instructor whose chief interest

was economics. As the course is now developing it presents an elementary survey of government, economics, and sociology, with the emphasis on the first two.

PROCEDURE FOR STUDY AND TEACHING

The method of instruction (also employed in natural science) was formulated by Professor H. C. Morrison, Superintendent of the Laboratory Schools. As applied to the social studies it provides for teaching large units, so that the more detailed materials are selected and learned in order to understand a definite topic or problem. A study of each large unit occupies approximately four weeks and requires a five-step procedure: Exploration, Presentation, Assimilation, Organization, and Recitation. One is immediately reminded of the five formal steps of the Herbartian method (Preparation, Presentation, Comparison, Generalization, Application), but Mr. Morrison's procedure soon appears as a different process in a number of important respects. The nature of the five stages of the teaching procedure will be briefly described and illustrated in their proper sequence.

1. The purpose of *Exploration* is twofold: (a) to enable the teacher to discover what the pupils know and do not know about the topic to be studied; (b) to excite the interest of the pupils and "motivate" the work. These results are accomplished by informal questioning and discussion, for which there has been no assignment or previous study, and the one period allotted to this step is nearly always sufficient. It reveals the fragmentary knowledge, misinformation, distorted ideas, or clever guesses that the children may have derived from all the sources of information with which they have come in contact—conversation, miscellaneous reading, plays, and motion pictures, previous courses in the same field, and school activities in general. The teacher thus ascertains what conditions he has to deal with and what he has to build upon, and at the same time he does his best to stimulate interest in the general topic or problem, and to indicate some of its varied aspects.

The procedure will be concretely illustrated by the following summary of an actual class period observed, the course being "Modern Problems," and the new topic to be introduced, "Distribution of Goods." The instructor began by asking for a summary of the topics and conclusions of the unit of work that had just been completed. When this had been answered a question was asked about the unit preceding the one just completed. After several main points had been quickly stated and summarized, the instructor asked, "What do you think our next topic is going to be?" This provoked a discussion in which a number of pupils participated and several good questions were asked, until finally a girl suggested "Ownership of Goods." The instructor accepted this as the essential idea of the topic that ought to be studied next, but explained that the phrase commonly used is "Distribution of Goods." A discussion of this topic followed in a general way, the instructor directing it so as to bring out the chief specific problems that would have to be studied to understand the distribution of goods. A girl suggested that it would

be very helpful to consider the historical background in order to see how the problems arose, and the instructor agreed. Questions were then asked about the Industrial Revolution—what it was and what it had to do with capital and labor. The meaning of these terms was considered and the question raised, "Why do we have industrial warfare and what weapons are used by both sides?" The discussion was kept on the broad aspects of the subject and directed toward the definition of questions and problems, the instructor remarking from time to time, "This is one of the questions we shall meet in studying the new unit." At the end the class was asked to consider how all these questions and issues affected themselves, and whether they were of any personal interest and importance.

2. *Presentation* means that the teacher, in as clear and interesting an exposition as he can make, presents the new topic or problem to be studied. The way has been prepared in the preceding period (*Exploration*) and now the instructor uses about half the period (twenty or twenty-five minutes) to set forth in a broad, general way the chief features and significance of the new unit. His purpose is (a) further to stimulate the pupils' interest, which has been aroused during the process of *Exploration*, and (b) to prepare the pupils to attack the new unit promptly and intelligently. No questions or comment may be interjected by the pupils during this *Presentation* and they must give their undivided attention to the teacher, not taking any notes except brief memoranda of questions or remarks that occur to them. The second half of the period, and perhaps a portion of the succeeding one, is then devoted to considering the questions and comments of the pupils. When this is over the pupils are tested—not so much to see what they remember about the statements made by the teacher as to ascertain how well they *comprehend* the exposition. Ordinarily, *Presentation* requires two periods in all, including the questions and the test, but if the test shows that it has not been successful for most of the class there is a second *Presentation*. A repetition may be necessary for certain members of the class and some pupils may have to rewrite three or four times before satisfying the instructor that they are ready to study the unit.

The "Exploration" described for the topic "Distribution of Goods" was followed the next day by a "Presentation" conducted in the following manner: The teacher began at once with an account of how the Industrial Revolution had brought about methods of production on a much larger scale and had led to a sharper division between capital and labor than had been the case under the old industrial order in which the worker was both capitalist and worker. "In this way the gulf between capital and labor was greatly widened, and under the present system there is an absence of personal contact between employer and employee, such as once was common." This Exposition continued for about twenty-five minutes, the teacher often illustrating his points by concrete examples, but not stopping to go into details. He referred to the frequency of strikes, the nature of the disputes that brought them on, and the evils of

industrial warfare for employer, worker, and society, finally raising the question of possible remedies and summarizing several of the proposals. When his statement had been completed, questions and comments were called for and many were forthcoming. For example, a clear definition was asked for such terms as "mediation," "arbitration," and "collective bargaining." Someone asked if the American Federation of Labor is a part of the United States Government. A number of points of view were brought out and a variety of questions raised. The class adjourned with the understanding that when they met next morning they were to make a written summary based on the *Presentation* and discussion.

Another class observed was just beginning its study of the *Crusades*, *Exploration* having been completed the day before. The instructor began the hour by distributing a topical outline containing brief headings for the main points. Following this outline for twenty-two minutes he gave an animated account of the rise of the Mohammedan religion, the antagonism and rivalry that culminated in the *Crusades*, and in the course of his exposition introduced some interesting comments about the psychology of religion. When the exposition was concluded there were some questions and the pupils were asked to write a paper immediately, summarizing the main points of the exposition.

3. Most of the time spent in the study of a topic is devoted to *Assimilation* (perhaps twelve or fifteen class periods). Essentially this stage is devoted to supervised study. Guidance outlines with topical references are supplied to the pupils. No "home work" is assigned, the required study being carried on entirely in the classroom or library and largely in the former. Books and reference works, maps and charts are brought into the classroom, where they remain until the study of the topic is completed. In the history work a hundred to two hundred volumes are frequently collected for a topic, titles in demand being extensively duplicated; pupils read from 300 to 500 pages on each topic. The readings are varied in character, including a number of books that are commonly classed as college texts or works for older people; for example, Hayes' *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, Paxson's *Recent History of the United States*, Charwood's *Lincoln*, Rhodes' *History of the United States*. Not much use is made of documents in most of the classes. Historical fiction is read a good deal in connection with the earlier history.

A wide variety of activities may be observed in the classrooms during the *Assimilation* period. A central purpose is to help the pupils to study effectively, to use reference books readily, to take notes efficiently, to collect and organize facts, and to make good outlines. Part of a period may be spent in simply reading portions of the textbook or of some supplementary book, with discussion, explanation, or supplementary information from the teacher. There may be debates. An outline may be sketched on the board to give some help with a difficult piece of organization. There are reports and "floor-talks" of five minutes or more in length. The ordinary question

and answer type of recitation is taboo, and the observer sees very little of it. Several instructors make extensive use of pictures and charts. The graph is used to excellent purpose in the community-life course. Frequent brief tests, usually the newer types, such as true and false, are given, and when the class is ready the next step is taken.

4. *Organization* (one class period) consists in the writing of a comprehensive outline presenting an organization of the topic as a whole written, without the help of notes, books, or aids of any kind. Although incidentally *Organization* is a test, its primary purpose is educational. The pupil is led to view the entire topic and to discriminate in the choice and arrangement necessary to show relations and to bring out the significance of the unit of work just completed.

5. The last step is the *Recitation*, which does not mean a mere answering of questions. It usually takes the form of "floor-talks," though at times it is written, and sometimes both forms are required. The pupil is expected to give a clear and effective exposition or narrative of the topic as a whole or of any phase that the instructor may designate. As a rule he may use his *Organization* paper as an outline for *Recitation*. The oral exposition may last five or ten minutes, or twenty or thirty minutes, according to circumstances, the chief difficulty in this respect being the practical one of limited time, only two or three periods being available usually for *Recitation*. This final step is also to be regarded as an essential part of the learning process, as well as a test of achievement.

In one of the classes observed, the *Westward Movement of Population in the United States* had been studied, and the first four steps had been completed. At the opening of the period one of the boys was called to the front of the room for a "floor-talk," the teacher remaining in the rear. This boy spoke fluently and steadily for twenty minutes, describing the expansion of population westward, the characteristic features of western life, transportation, and the problems of conservation of natural resources, including in connection with the last point some irrelevant matters. He then invited questions which followed promptly. Correction, comment, and queries occupied ten minutes, and the attention of the class was good during both the floor-talk and the discussion. One of the girls was then called to recite, and she also spoke readily for thirteen minutes, covering the same general ground as the first speaker, but with some differences of emphasis and detail. The class attention was not quite so good as during the discussions came from the class.

ADJUSTMENT TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES OF PUPILS

The classroom technique is so organized as to recognize and encourage the brighter and more industrious pupils to work beyond the average required of the class. The guidance sheets for *Assimilation* indicate the minimum essentials which must be mastered by all, but they also include a list of suggestions for additional work that may be done by those who reach the "mastery level" in advance of the

majority of the group. This work for excess credit may take the form of additional reading and study of the class topic, of more intensive study of some special phase, or investigation of an additional related topic. The nature of the supplementary projects is indicated in the outline of the course in *Modern History*, but the instructors report that the best results are obtained in cases where the pupil himself has developed a special interest in some aspect of the general topic under consideration and elects to study it in detail. These supplementary studies are usually embodied in a paper with bibliography and footnote citations, and reports of special excellence are preserved in the school library. (Percentile grades are not given at all.) The instructors are expected to make a special effort to arouse and foster the intellectual interests of the superior pupils by the encouragement and assistance they give in connection with the excess credit work.

COMPOSITE COURSE IN CIVICS AND ENGLISH

The course in *Community Life and Civic Problems* has already been described in so far as it forms a part of the social studies work, and the classroom procedure has also been explained. It now remains to describe the interesting way in which the first-year English and the first-year course in social studies are combined. This experiment was undertaken with a view to improving the work both in civics and in English, as well as for the sake of economizing time. The convictions underlying the whole plan are these:

(1) The textbooks available in civics provide an utterly inadequate amount of reading for any reasonably intelligent child, and are necessarily highly condensed and often made up largely of generalizations and abstractions.

(2) The usual English work is concerned with composition, requiring formal writing on topics assigned or selected at random by the pupils, and of literature largely preoccupied with an analytical study of "classics" and the laborious explanation of allusions.

It was believed that pupils can read with great pleasure as well as profit much more material than the textbook in civics supplies, and that such material ought to be varied in character. As to literature, the need of adolescent pupils is extensive rather than intensive reading, and biography, travel, and history should not be neglected. Composition, both oral and written, is by common consent fundamentally important, yet in spite of the universal desire for self-expression most high school pupils heartily dislike the composition work. They waste a great amount of time trying to select a subject, or if a topic has been assigned them, they fret because they have "nothing to say." The formal composition work frequently fails to provide any exercise of interest to the individual and the latter feels that neither the class nor teacher is really interested in what he may say.

It was decided that a combination of the two courses might be made in such a way as to promise at least a partial solution of these problems, and,

at the same time, to effect a very important economy of time. The composite course follows the program of study for community life. As each topic is taken up three groups of readings are provided: (1) Study References; (2) History, Biography, Travel, and Essay; (3) Imaginative Literature—fiction, short story, poetry, and drama.² Pupils are asked to read some of the books and articles in each group, and to record on a blank library card (3 x 5 or 5 x 7) answers to the following questions: What is this article or book about? How does it relate to the topic? Did you like it? If so, what did you like in it? If not, what did you dislike in it? Answering these questions on a library card demands concise and pointed replies, and gives the teacher a check on what has been accomplished. An examination of many of these report cards gives convincing proof that the pupils are reading widely, with keen interest and often with very intelligent understanding.

The records kept by the instructors indicate that, as these reading lists have been revised and extended and the stock of library books increased, the amount of reading done has grown rapidly. In one class of thirty-nine pupils (the best group of readers in a ninth-grade class), the amount of reading in one term varied from 1161 to 5139 pages, with an average of 2334. The next semester the variation was from 1386 to 12,046, with an average of 4839. A year later the average rose to 5576. Another test of real interest was afforded by an inquiry about vacation reading. Report cards like those used during the school season were requested and it was shown that during a period of eight or ten days all but one of twenty-five pupils had read from 200 to 2500 pages each, exclusive of periodical literature, the average being 800 pages. (Nothing had been said in advance to suggest vacation reading.) A large proportion of the books read had been included in the book list furnished in the classes.

Composition work grows naturally out of the necessities of the study of civics. During the Assimilation period in particular, much written work is needed for the most effective study, and this work

is used for training in English, as well as for the study of civics. Much of it is in the form of report work made to the class, and thus an audience and a social purpose are provided. There is enough range of choice to appeal to the individual interests of pupils. The "floor-talks" give frequent practice in oral composition. An examination of many reports prepared by the pupils and the opportunity of listening to a number of "floor-talks" show at least a considerable measure of success. Errors in English are indicated by the teacher on papers and summaries. Drill work is given where it seems to be required and while not much is said about form as such, there is constant insistence upon effective expression, both as an evidence of achievement and as essential to conveying information and ideas to others.

Last year two sections of the combined course in community life were taught by a social science teacher and one by an English teacher. In some cases Part I and Part II of the Community Life course have been separated by a semester of "standard English instruction." The teachers of the social studies and the English teachers participating in the instruction seem to be agreed in approving the composite course.³

DISCUSSION

It is suggested that the critical reader compare the chief features of this program with those proposed by Mr. Rugg and by Messrs. Marshall and Judd, considering the questions raised at the end of the article on the Rugg course. In the case of the World History sequence the value of the principles and the adequacy with which they are carried out should be considered.

¹ Described in Johnson, *Teaching of History*, pages 196-197.

² The full lists used for this course are now available in Mr. H. C. Hill's *Community Life and Civic Problems* (Ginn & Company, 1922).

³ Mr. H. C. Hill discusses at some length "Opportunities for Correlation between Community Life and English," *School Review*, for January, February, and March, 1922. Other phases of the work are treated in the University High School's "Studies in Secondary Education," Part I, January, 1923.

II. A "Unified Social Science Curriculum"

PROPOSED BY PROF. H. O. RUGG, LINCOLN SCHOOL OF TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Although this program for the social studies is perhaps the most comprehensive and ambitious that has yet been proposed, and has enjoyed more publicity than any other, it appears to be the subject of no little misunderstanding on the part both of its admirers and of those who condemn. This is due in part to the incomplete materials that have been put out, to the fact that published articles about it have been scattered in place and time, to the comprehensive character of the undertaking, and to the fact that it was launched in an atmosphere of controversy.

Dr. H. O. Rugg came to the Lincoln School of Teachers College in January, 1920, as psychologist at the school and Associate Professor of Education in the College. It was arranged almost at once that

he might undertake as his major work an extensive piece of research, occupying perhaps four or five years, and devoted to the social studies. During the twelve or fifteen months in which this project was getting under way the reports of the Second Committee of Eight¹ were appearing.

Against this report Professor Rugg waged energetic and uncompromising warfare, denouncing the Committee's methods as "thoroughly unscientific," and its procedure "an ineffective type," asserting that "as an investigating body . . . it has failed completely," and urging the educational profession of the country to "refuse a hearing" to such a report.² He undertook to define two schools of workers: "The advocates of a new kind of social studies program, and those who are convinced of

the validity of our present practice." "Our committees have been almost completely made up of protagonists of the current educational order." He declared the issues to be: "Shall we use a scientific method in the reconstruction of the curriculum?" and proceeded to outline "a complete statement of what I regard as a sound program . . . for a national committee in the social studies." This sharp attack and unqualified condemnation naturally provoked some resentment and retort. Certain phases of Professor Rugg's account of committee procedures, his attempt to divide the workers of the field into clearly defined groups of conservatives and progressives, and his sweeping claims about the possibilities of scientific procedure were challenged. These circumstances are here recalled, because they constitute a relevant part of the story of the genesis of the Rugg investigation. The merits of the controversy lie outside the scope of the present report, which undertakes to set forth as objectively as possible the scope and character of the undertaking, which must ultimately be judged on the basis of its own intrinsic importance.

PRINCIPLES AND PROCEDURE

The point of departure for the enterprise is well stated in the following thesis: "Progress in curriculum-making will come only by making a clean sweep of what we now have in the curriculum, ignoring the material in the present course (including later only those parts that conform to our criteria) and building a whole new program on a scientific basis of principles of selection, grade placement, and arrangement." It should be noted here that while it was the keynote of earlier articles and speeches that "a scientific method can be employed," Professor Rugg now says, "I am trying to avoid the term 'scientific' in connection with the validation of material included in the course," explaining that he finds that the use of this term leads to misunderstanding.

From the outset the workers undertook to apply in the seeking of proper curricular materials the radical principle quoted.³ They tried to discover materials that would "stand the most rigorous tests of social value" by means of "an objective analysis of social needs." Confident that "a sound and relatively permanent curricula may be developed by scientific methods," they set out to collect material for the discovery and selection of:

1. Permanent and important problems and issues of contemporary life, economic, industrial, social, and political.
2. Questions that must be discussed in the consideration of the problems.
3. Generalizations and principles agreed upon by specialists in the different fields, which arise from the consideration of the questions.
4. Common modes of living, activities people engage in, their attitudes, prejudices, opinions, ideals, and the like—to be determined from community and group surveys.⁴
5. Appropriate episodes, concrete and detailed, and accompanied by maps, pictures, charts, etc., for the purpose of providing fundamental facts of contemporary life, and training in deliberative judgment, making generalizations, drawing inferences, and

appreciating the principal problems of the day.

6. "Accessory activities," in which pupils under present conditions of public school administration can participate, such as debating, student councils, clubs, scout organizations, excursions, community service, and the like.

The first four of these six inquiries were regarded as essential steps in curriculum research, while the last two were for the preparation of actual text materials, supplementary readings, maps, exercises, etc.

Where could problems, issues, questions, etc., be discovered? It was decided that while help might be obtained from newspaper writers, public officials, teachers of the social sciences, and others, that no other group could contribute so much as "the frontier thinkers . . . out on the firing line of social analysis." To secure this contribution required the analytical study of books by such writers as Bryce, Beard, Zimmerman, Merriam, Graham Wallace, Laski, H. A. Gibbons, J. A. Hobson, J. M. Keynes, Tawney, Bruère, and the Webbs. The list of books for analysis was chosen in the following manner: (1) A group of advisers was called upon and each asked to name ten books in English of any date that he would analyze if he were compiling a statement of the problems and issues of the day, taking care that no issues of importance were omitted. Each was asked to choose books that represented "deep insight and balanced vision, chosen irrespective of economics or political faith." Responses were received from 30 economists, 15 political scientists, 14 sociologists, 5 historians, 4 anthropologists, and 22 editors;⁵ (2) several thousand books on the shelves of the Columbia University Library, dealing with economics, sociology, industries, and politics were canvassed by the workers and selections made for detailed study; (3) all books between 1915 and 1922, rated by the *Book Review Digest* as works of distinct merit, irrespective of economic and political opinion; (4) all books in the special fields that appeared to be important from a reading of the book reviews of at least six periodicals, such as the *Nation*, *New Republic*, *The Freeman*, *The Independent*.⁶ The list of books is a constantly growing one and Professor Rugg states that in all more than two hundred have now been read and analyzed.

The analysis is directed towards tabulating, in terms of quarter-pages, the space devoted to each question discussed in the book. The workers first note the problems and issues treated; next the principal questions that must be answered in a study of these problems and issues; and finally the generalizations or principles upon which authorities agree and which the investigators believe "should be understood by the rank and file of our people." A list of 300 contemporary problems, 150 issues, and about 2,000 generalizations and principles has been compiled.

BUILDING THE COURSE OF STUDY

The 300 important contemporary problems, after several revisions, have been arranged in the following major groups: immigration, natural resources, industry and business, transportation, the American city,

education and the formation of intelligent public opinion, government in the American democracy, miscellaneous social problems, and world affairs. For example, one of the problems dealing with natural resources is: "How can we provide for the widespread ownership and development of farm land and homes?" Under industry and business come such problems as: "Securing the fullest co-operation of labor and capital" and "Providing continuous employment for all."

Adequate appreciation of the problems and issues of contemporary society is regarded as the chief goal to be sought in the teaching of social studies. Consequently the tentative courses of study are built upon the three hundred problems grouped in the way just described. During the first year some of the materials in their first form were tested in Grades V, VI, and IX, but it was then decided that the best place for the trial would be in the Junior High School, and thereafter the materials when prepared were taught in Grades VII to IX. More recently some of the pamphlets have been placed in selected public schools of more than one hundred American cities, from which the investigators are seeking reports from the teachers whose classes use the pamphlets. The courses have several times undergone both revision and rearrangement. At present the material fills eleven booklets of 200 to 300 pages each, 6 x 9 inches in size, and printed in eight-point type, with hundreds of pictures, maps, charts, and graphs, besides reading lists, test questions, exercises, etc.

The following outline shows the titles of the eleven published volumes, "Social Science Pamphlets," with a brief analysis of their contents:

SEVENTH GRADE SERIES

- I. TOWN AND CITY LIFE IN AMERICA.
 - Making a Community Survey.
 - Towns Within a Town.
 - The Houses We Live in.
 - The Health of the Community.
 - Groups in the American Town.
 - Our Newspapers and Magazines.
 - The Schools of America.
 - The Business of City Government.
 - Small Town vs. Large City.
- II. RESOURCES AND INDUSTRIES IN AMERICA.
 - The Large Population and Enormous Territory of the United States.
 - What Happens to a Country when Transportation Fails?
 - How Americans Have Used Their Water-Ways.
 - The Story of American Roads.
 - How the Railroad Tied American Communities Together.
 - Communication; How Messages Travel.
 - Coal, Iron, and Steel.
 - Machines—and the Industrial Revolution.
 - How an Industrial Nation is Fed.
 - Interdependence in the Modern World.
 - The Startling Growth of Cities Since 1800.
- III. RESOURCES AND INDUSTRIES OF MODERN NATIONS.
 - This volume is in preparation. It will be devoted to the subject, "Can a Nation Live by Itself?" It will develop at some length the interdependence of nations and such topics as, Industrial and Agricultural Countries, Empires, Colonies, Ships, and Resources.
- IV. THE AMERICAN PEOPLE.
 - In preparation. This will deal with immigration of peoples, geographical relationships, and the leading events and problems connected with America and her immigrants.

In the first edition of the pamphlets the Seventh Grade work began with a booklet entitled, "America and Her Immigrants," which dealt with the following topics: who they are, where they come from, why they come, why they came in the past, how they are received, what they do here, how they become Americans.

EIGHTH GRADE SERIES

- I. THE WESTWARD MOVEMENT AND THE GROWTH OF TRANSPORTATION.
 - The Red Man's Continent.
 - Why the Colonists Came.
 - Life on the Different Frontiers.
 - Across the Appalachian Barrier.
 - The California Gold Rush.
 - Natives and Immigrants as Pioneers.
 - From Pack Horse to Pullman Car.
 - From Flat Boat to Steamship.
- II. THE MECHANICAL CONQUEST OF AMERICA.
 - Industrial Revolution in England.
 - Hand-work to Machinery in America.
 - Industry and Protective Tariffs.
 - A Century of Invention.
 - A Drift from Farm to City.
 - Wages, Hours, Conditions of Work.
 - Changes in Agricultural America.
 - Seventy Years of Big Business.
- III. AMERICA'S MARCH TOWARD DEMOCRACY.
 - Aristocracy versus Democracy.
 - The Separation from England.
 - How the Constitution was Made.
 - Washington and Conservative Government.
 - Jefferson and the Rise of Parties.
 - Jackson, a Man of the People.
 - Eastern Labor and the West.
 - Recurring Conflict of Nation and Sections.
 - Government and Big Business.

NINTH GRADE SERIES

(Note.—The arrangement of the four main topics for the Ninth Grade is temporary, the final arrangement not having been determined.)

- I. AMERICANIZING OUR FOREIGN-BORN.
 - The Invasion of America.
 - Colonization in Cities.
 - The Immigrant at Work.
 - The Immigrant at School.
 - How He Becomes Naturalized.
 - How He Affects American Life.
 - How We Can Make Him a Good American Citizen.
- II. RESOURCES AND INDUSTRIES IN A MACHINE WORLD.
 - Can a Nation Live by Itself?
 - Can the United States? England? Russia? China? France? Germany? The Smaller Nations?
 - Growth of Cities—Industrial Revolution.
 - Interdependence of City and Country.
 - Transportation—the Key Industry.
 - How One Worker Depends on Another.
 - From Home to Factory.
 - Concentration in Industry and Business.
- III. WASTE AND CONSERVATION OF AMERICA'S RESOURCES.
 - Extravagant Use of the Soil.
 - Helping Men Own Farms.
 - Rebuilding the Forests.
 - Squandering Power Resources.
 - The Army of the Unemployed.
 - The Right Man in the Right Place.
 - Co-operation Between Employer and Worker.
- IV. HOW NATIONS LIVE TOGETHER.
 - (In the first plan this volume was No. 4 for the Eighth Grade.)
 - Before and After the War.
 - Storm Centers of the World.
 - Steam Power and World Trade.
 - Strife Over Natural Resources.
 - More Colonies, Bigger Ships, and War.
 - Secret Diplomacy and Revealed Treaties.
 - Governments and Their Aspirations.
 - The Spread of Representative Government.
 - America and World Co-operation.

The handling of one of the large topics is indicated by the following outline of a complete Pamphlet:

THE WESTWARD MOVEMENT AND THE GROWTH OF TRANSPORTATION

- I. Long Distance Connections (pp. 1-11).
(The World Grows Smaller Every Day).
 - A. Beating Time and Space (story).
 - B. Life on the Road to 1900.
Life on the Road after 1910.
From "Facts & Figures of Automobile Industry, 1922." National Chamber of Commerce, New York City.
 - C. When Wires First Talked, 1876.
 - D. Telling the President He's Elected, in 1829 and 1922.
 - E. and F. In Your Parents' Childhood No Such Headings as These Filled the Newspapers (air craft; radio).
 - G. Music by Wireless.
- II. Little Journeys (pp. 12-24).
 - A. Journey from Boston to New York by Madam Sarah Kemble Knight in 1704.
 - B. Journey from New York to Philadelphia by Benjamin Franklin in 1723 (Benjamin Franklin's Autobiography, pp. 61-64).
 - C. Travelling in the Saint Lawrence River Region as it was in 1803 and 1853—described by Washington Irving (Washington Irving's "Life and Letters," pp. 54-55).
 - D. As Dickens Saw America in 1842.
 - E. Travelling as Emerson Found it, 1851-1867. ("Memoir of R. W. Emerson," Cabot, pp. 566, 8, 9.)
 - F. Journey from Lawrence, Kansas, to the Michigan Woods near Grand Rapids, made by Dr. Anna Howard Shaw in 1859. (Anna H. Shaw, "Story of a Pioneer," pp. 22-26.)
- III. The Red Man's Continent, 1600-1800 (pp. 25-43).
Introduction.
Indian Days of the Long Ago. ("Indian Days of Long Ago," E. S. Curtis, pp. 71-9.)
Indians Fight on the Island. ("Last of the Mohicans," J. F. Cooper, extract.)
- IV. How the Early English Traders Probably Saved the English Colonies (pp. 44-50).
(Discussion.)
- V. How the White Man Came to the Red Man's Continent (pp. 51-57).
 1. How Europeans Wanted to Get to India and China, 1300-1600.
 2. What People Knew About the World Before Columbus Discovered America.
 3. How People Lived in Europe in 1400-1600.
 4. Explorers of the 1500's.
 5. Stories of Our Colonies.
 6. Life in the Different Colonies, 1700-1790.
 7. Stories of Early Leaders—George Washington, Boone, and others.
- VI. A Map Study of the Westward Movement, 1790-1890 (pp. 58-65).
(Discussion and maps; "moving picture" series of 6 maps of the Westward Population movement.)
While the Westward Movement Was On, What Was Happening to the Growth of Population? (Graphs.)
- VII. Territory Owned by the United States at Different Times, 1790-1920 (pp. 66-76).
How we got the Plains between the Mississippi and the Rockies:
The Purchase of the Louisiana Territory.
The Purchase of Florida.
How Oregon became a part of the United States.
How We Got Southwest Territory from Mexico, 1845-1848.
- VIII. Life on the Different Frontiers, 1620-1890 (pp. 77-91).
 1. How the Time Line Portrays History.
 2. Life on all the Frontier Much the Same—Simple and Independent.
 3. The First Frontiers—Eastern Massachusetts and Virginia, 1620-1700. ("Frontier in American History," F. J. Turner, p. 70, and Turner's "Massachusetts Archives," p. 155.)
 4. Massachusetts Bay Frontier was Started by Traders, Too.
 5. The Virginia Frontier of 1700.
 6. Uncle Nick Wilson's Story of Pioneer Days in 1850. ("White Indian Boy," E. N. Wilson and H. R. Driggs.)
 7. "Going West" in Those Days.
- IX. How and Why the Southern Planter Also Pushed Westward (pp. 92-99).
 1. What Effect Would Events Described in the Next Account Have on the Westward Movement of Southern Planters?
 2. Why the Cotton Business Grew Fast After 1800.
 3. How the Westward Movements of the Northerner and the Southerner Met in the Mississippi Valley.
- X. The Last Lap of the Westward Movement (pp. 100-109).
Gold in California—Farms in Oregon.
- XI. The People Who Settled the West (pp. 110-138).
 - (a) Native "Americans" and Immigrants as Pioneers.
 - (b) The Indentured Servants.
 1. Colonists Become "Americans," 1775-1783. New-comers henceforth called "Immigrants."
 2. One Hundred Years of Immigration.
 3. Why Immigrants Came to America From the Old Countries from 1840-1880.
 - (a) The Irish came 1846-1855.
 - (b) The Germans Came, Too.
 - (c) Why Did the Germans Come?
 - (d) The Scandinavians Come.
 4. The Change from the old to the New Immigration, 1890-1900.
 5. Shall We Restrict Still More the Numbers of Immigrants that Come?
 - (a) The Number that Came in 1913.
 - (b) The Number that were allowed to come, under the New Law in 1921.
 - (c) Do "Native Americans" Want Immigrants to Settle Here Today?
 - (d) Have Native Americans in the Past Wanted Immigrants to Settle Here?
 - (1) In Colonial Times.
 - (2) Conditions After 1800.
 - (3) The Molly Maguires, 1850-1870.
- XII. A Fever of Road Building, 1790-1820 (pp. 148-153).
 1. The Trials of Travelling in the Wilderness.
 2. The Stone Roads of the Latter 1700's.
 3. Toll Roads were Profitable.
 4. New Kinds of Transportation.
 5. New York State and Maryland Also Built Stone Roads.
 6. The Great National Road—The Cumberland.
 7. The Cumberland Road was a National Road, Built by the Federal Government.
- XIII. How American Transportation Developed with the Western Movement of the People, 1790-1880 (pp. 154-158).
 1. The Race for Western Trade, 1790-1840.
 2. Trade Routes in 1790.
 - (a) Red Man's Trails.
 - (b) Bridge Roads and the Valley Roads.
 3. The Appalachians; Barriers to Transportation.
 4. Which City Had the Best Route to the West?
- XV. The Flat Boat Era, 1790-1830 (pp. 159-167).
(Extracts from Seymour Dunbar, "A History of Travel in America," vol. I, pp. 272, 291-294, 301, 2, 4.)
- XVI. (Map Exercise) Do You Know America's Principal Rivers and Lakes? (pp. 168-169).
- XVII. The Story of the River Steamboat (pp. 170-179).
(Adaptation from "Paths of Inland Commerce," Archer Hulbert, and George B. Merrick's, "Old Times on the Mississippi.")
- XVIII. An Epidemic of Canal Building, 1817-1850 (pp. 180-190).
 1. The Erie Canal, 1817-1825.
 2. Ships must Sail in Water That is Nearly Level.
 3. How a Lock Works.

4. Why Did Some People Oppose the Building of the Erie Canal?

5. Philadelphia Also Built a Canal, The Pennsylvania Canal, 1834.

6. Baltimore Tried to Build a Canal, Too: The Chesapeake and Ohio Canal.

XIX. Railroads: Rapid and Cheap Transportation (pp. 191-205).

1. Comparison of Railroads in 1830 and 1922. (Photographs from "The Americas," February, 1921, Natl. City Bank, and "A History of Travel in America," S. Dunbar, Vol. III.)

2. What Routes Did the Railroads Follow?

3. Why the Canal Owners Opposed the Railroads.

4. A Question about "Monopolies."

XX. We Must Now Begin the Study of Another Topic Than the Westward Movement and The Growth of Transportation (pp. 206-207).

1. Your Need for a summary of the Whole Pamphlet.

2. Important Questions You Should be able to Talk About.

3. How Important is the Westward Movement in the History of the American People? What Part Did Transportation Play?

CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES OF THE COURSE

The foregoing outline of the course examined in the light of the procedure by which it was constructed reveals at once that the fundamental feature of the organization is its completely composite character. Material from history, geography, economics, political science, anthropology, sociology, or any other field needed is drawn upon. Materials are then organized definitely "in problem-solving form." Common subject lines are wholly disregarded, yet the word "merge" is not used lest it suggest that the content of "present school subjects" has been used in new combinations. "Only one criterion is employed in selecting the content of the course; its contribution to present living." It is believed that this result can be achieved most successfully "through one unified social science curriculum." It is specifically argued that historical movements cannot be understood without resorting to facts and principles usually classified as geographical (for example, the westward movement of population in the United States or the growth of transportation); that writers in one of these fields frequently draw material from one or more of the others; that "progressive teachers" have long sought a closer correlation; and that interest in the study of contemporary problems is greatly stimulated if brief historical treatments are introduced.

"Problem-solving organization" might convey a wrong impression. The sense in which Mr. Rugg uses it is explained in a statement which he has supplied for the purpose:

"In our scheme for the senior high school there is a group of problems of which the most general one is this: *Problem of organizing the world's resources so that the necessities of life may be efficiently produced and distributed to all.* To prepare students to take part in a discussion of this problem (not to solve it, of course; for adults have not!), such generalizations as these must be developed through the subject-matter of the lower grades (junior high school, for our purposes):

1. Industrial nations depend to a large extent on other nations or regions for food.

2. The problem of food supply underlies all

other problems of industrial nations.

3. Population increases more rapidly in industrial nations than in agricultural ones.

4. Industrial nations have produced populations in excess of ability to produce food.

5. An uninterrupted system of transportation is necessary for both cities and industrial countries to live.

6. Large populations are unstable when they depend on a complicated organization.

7. Pressure of population often causes industrial development, imperial expansion, and war.

8. Industrial growth means, among other things, increase in population, creation of manufacturing cities, wide fluctuation in prices, great changes in labor conditions.

9. In industrial expansion, the geographic unit grows, the population grows, and industry concentrates and integrates.

10. As hand-labor gives way to machine-labor the standard of living for the general population slowly rises.

"These are examples from a long list of generalizations. To develop a grasp of these generalizations detailed episodes, general narrative, map exercises, graphs, and the like are built up in the pamphlet. The generalizations and the questions which have to be answered to understand the generalizations, and the questions which have to be answered to understand the problems form the control of the *selection* of the material in the pamphlet. The first organization of the materials in experimental editions is based primarily on our own classroom experience and our knowledge of psychology, and afterward is revised in accordance with the results of a testing program which is now being set up in schools."

How does history fare in the process of curriculum-making by the processes described? The hypothesis adopted is that the course will contain "all socially worth-while historical material" if it includes only those historical facts which are actually used by specialists in government, economics, and sociology, when writing about contemporary problems. For example, nothing will be told about the history of the relations between capital and labor that is not actually used by critical writers when discussing the contemporary problems of industrial relations, and the same would be true of the history of immigration in studying immigration, or of American cities, or of the disappearance of free land. "Sharp contrasts" between different periods are frequently presented. Moreover, the history of only one topic or one group of related topics is traced at a time, and the entire development down to the present day is treated at once.

The outline will reveal that sometimes the historical treatment deals with a rather broad subject, as in the case of "America's March Toward Democracy," or "The Westward Movement and the Growth of Transportation." At the same time Professor Rugg repudiates certain views which some of his earlier utterances implied that he held. He now says explicitly: "We make no proposal to teach history

except in chronological sequence with an accumulation of historical matters placed in their actual time sequence. The chronology of historical movement must not be upset. We have no sympathy with the proposals to teach history backward and do not agree that there is an issue of chronological vs. psychological." He also speaks of historical background "involving a grasp of time-sequence and continuity." He suggests that as a part of each year's work, or perhaps at intervals of two or three years, there should be "more continuous stretches of history in which all interlocking aspects of national development are tied together systematically."

PSYCHOLOGICAL EXPERIMENT AND ADJUSTMENT TO INDIVIDUALS

The social studies curriculum is designed to cover the entire three hundred problems which have been tabulated as a result of the research. The present series for the junior high school covers all the major groups of problems, but not fully. For example, there is a pamphlet treating problems of international relations, but many of the problems coming within this field are reserved for study in the senior high school, where the greater maturity of the pupils and their preparation in the lower grades will make it possible for them to handle the problems more adequately. It is intended ultimately to work out a social studies curriculum for the entire twelve years of the American school system, and when this is done the whole range of problems that confront the American people will be included, many of them recurrently through the grades.

There is an attempt to organize materials with reference to a psychological principle of learning, according to which the strength of an association depends upon the vividness of the connection made, or upon the number of repetitions. Problems recur again and again through the grades, partly in order that they may be studied on increasingly mature levels and partly in recognition of this law of learning. From the psychological point of view the materials are divided into two main types, the "impersonal" and the "personalized." Among those coming within the first class are facts about location which should be learned through repeated practice exercises similar to those for the learning of fundamental combinations in arithmetic or basic words in spelling. A definite practice technique for this purpose has been developed. Other examples of "impersonal" material are: (a) Specific facts that must be learned; (b) big concepts expressed by "cue" words or phrases, such as "patriotism," "imperialism," "secret diplomacy," "conservatism"; (c) problems and issues of contemporary life; (d) established principles or generalizations concerning current modes of living. The educational psychology involved in the teaching of these types of "impersonal" facts is being studied and tested.

The "personalized" materials are those that have "a rich human emotional content" and thus make a vivid impression and need little if any repetition. To secure this vividness thousands of episodes are

selected and incorporated in the curriculum. Professor Rugg places the greatest emphasis upon this point, and even spoke of it as "perhaps the chief contribution" of his Social Science Pamphlets. He feels that the incorporation of these episodes, because of their intense interest for the children, has the effect of making the material "self-motivated." The "personalized facts" are made effective for the main purpose of the course by weaving them in with the "impersonal facts"—big concepts, generalizations, problems, and issues.

A study has also been undertaken to fit the course to the individual differences of pupils. The printed pamphlets are regarded as constituting the minimal essentials which all pupils should master. All the members of the class are kept together in the study of any given unit of material, so as to have class discussions of the problems. If, however, certain pupils complete the work of a unit in advance of the class, demonstrating their mastery by a test, these pupils are allowed to do additional work through reading and special exercises.

The faith of Professor Rugg and his fellow workers in the rôle that the school may play in American life is briefly stated in the following paragraphs, which are printed in each of the Pamphlets:

"Those who are engaged in the making of these materials of instruction believe that the future of representative democracy in America depends upon the intelligence of the common man. They believe that known facts of intelligence are worthy of the hypothesis that there is in the group mind sufficient capacity to express its will effectively through industrial, social, and political machinery. This means that potential capacity must be transformed into dynamic ability. They are equally confident that, although America has practiced universal education on a scale never before attempted by a large nation, our instruction has fallen far short of preparing the rank and file for the intelligent operation of democratic government.

"After more than a century of democracy there are signs of serious import that we are facing a near impasse in citizenship. The impasse, if such it is, is undoubtedly the natural outgrowth of our spectacular conquest of vast material wealth; of our reception into the country of thirty-three millions of people of diverse races, nationalities, practices, and beliefs, and of the massing of human beings in cities at a rate of which we had hitherto not dreamed. The present crisis has been brought about in large part by the mushroom growth of a fragile and highly specialized mechanism of industry, transportation, communication, and credit. With these stupendous material advances, resulting in the artificial inflation of our economic and social standards of living, there has not been a parallel æsthetic, spiritual, and cultural growth.

"To relieve this impasse, we must substitute critical judgment for impulsive response as the basis for deciding our social and political issues. The thoroughgoing reconstruction of the school curriculum is

a necessary first step in the process, for the reason that the public school is our most potent agency for social regeneration. Especially through the curriculum in the social sciences must we subject our youth to a daily regimen of deliberation and critical thought. Only those who have been trained through years of practice in the analysis of facts, in the making of decisions, the drawing of inferences and conclusions will resort to intelligence instead of to predisposition as their guide for conduct."

DISCUSSION

Probably few critics will dispute the value of an elaborate analysis of two or three hundred books of the kind used in this study, with the compilation of lists of problems, issues, generalizations, etc. When the promised monograph appears with the full data and bibliography, the results can be checked, and if they stand the test, subsequent curriculum-makers will have a unique body of information at their disposal, with the possibility of restating and regrouping problems.

There remain many questions as to how these materials are used or should be used, even though much criticism is disarmed by Mr. Rugg's abandonment of the term "scientific" in connection with the selection and emphasis of materials. Among others, the critical student will have to consider these:

1. Should the entire list of 300 problems be studied by all pupils? Even in six years of study and with some preparation in the elementary school, and with due allowance for their immaturity, can children profitably survey the whole field of public problems? Is there no danger, even with insistence upon "rigorous thinking," of cultivating superficiality instead of thoroughness? Could better training be given with fewer problems?
2. Are contemporary problems of a civic nature the all-sufficient basis of a course in the "social studies"?
3. What are the comparative merits of a course built entirely about contemporary problems and one organized, as Messrs. Judd and Marshall put it, "in a definite, scientific system around certain guiding principles"?
4. Are the full educational values that may be derived from a study of history realized? What values can be derived from the study of the evolution of a social group with its inter-related aspects and interests? Is anything distinctive to be gained from the study of the development of a nation or the story of the progress of mankind?
5. Are the grouping and treatment and order those which are best adapted to reveal and interpret fundamentals?
6. Will the "Social Science Pamphlets" stand the test of scholarship in the special fields drawn upon? So far they have not been subjected to the scrutiny of the specialists. Mr. Rugg explains this by the statement that his present pamphlets are to be regarded as just as tentative as if mimeographed, and

that he will later obtain the criticism of scholars in the social sciences.

¹ Committee on History and Education for Citizenship, appointed by the American Historical Association, Chairman, Professor Joseph Schafer, University of Oregon; Secretary, Dr. Daniel C. Knowlton, Lincoln School, of Teachers College.

² Articles in *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* and the *Elementary School Journal*, both of May, 1921, and *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, October, 1921. The last of these was made up of open letters from Professors Schafer and Rugg. The first was addressed as "an open letter to Professor Henry Johnson" of Teachers College, and seemed to imply that Professor Johnson was the protagonist of the Committee and its work.

³ Professor Rugg has had the assistance of his younger brother, Earle U. Rugg, who had been a high school teacher of history and civics for several years; of Miss Emma Schweppe, formerly teacher of the Fifth Grade in the Lincoln School; and of several secretarial workers and stenographers.

⁴ This item of the research has not yet been undertaken.

⁵ As an example of the advisers, the historians who replied were Carl Becker, Guy Stanton Ford, J. H. Robinson, Clive Day and L. M. Larson; the anthropologists, Franz Boaz, Robert H. Lowie, Elsie C. Parsons, and W. F. Ogburn; while the editors included such different personalities as Fabian Franklin and H. L. Mencken, Hamilton Holt, and Albert J. Nock, Lawrence Abbott, and Oswald G. Villard.

⁶ The kind of book chosen is indicated, in part, by the names of authors already mentioned. Other examples are: Gleason, "What the Workers Want"; Marshall, "Readings in Industrial Society"; Veblen, "Theory of Business Enterprise"; Cole, "Chaos and Order in Industry"; Beard, "American Government and Politics"; Fosdick, "American Police Systems"; "The Americanization Studies," in 10 volumes, edited by Allen T. Burns.

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III. A Composite Course for the Junior High School

PROPOSED BY DEAN L. C. MARSHALL AND ASSOCIATES

Professor L. C. Marshall is well known as an economist and as Dean of the School of Commerce and Administration at the University of Chicago. His interest in a social studies program for schools has been gradually evolved from his experience and activities as a college teacher of economics and a constructive leader in education for business.

Professor Marshall states that immediately after beginning to teach college economics, following his graduate work at Harvard, he became dissatisfied with the methods and materials then in use, and this dissatisfaction increased so rapidly that he soon began to plan for a different type of work in college classes. If he had been using the educational vocabulary of today he would no doubt have said that he desired to "socialize" the college work in economics. Later he learned that some of his predecessors, especially Professor Taylor, of the University of Michigan, had arrived at similar conclusions and had to some extent employed similar methods. In order to carry out his purpose, Professor Marshall felt the need of much better materials drawn from a wide variety of sources and of better teaching organization of the materials.

He attacked the problem on an ambitious scale and in the course of a few years had collected "an immense mass of material," from which the first selection published was *Materials for the Study of Elementary Economics*, edited by Marshall, Wright, and Field (1913). Meanwhile, in 1909, Professor Marshall had become Dean of the College of Commerce and Administration and had given intensive study to the problems of collegiate business education. He collected from every college in the country that would respond their announcements of courses in history and the related social sciences, and made an elaborate tabulation of the results, only to discover that extremely little was offered anywhere that was unconventional in character. Consequently, he decided to work out an entirely new curriculum for the school over which he presided, which led in turn to elaborate plans for the collection and publication under his editorship of materials for the collegiate study of economics and business, and later for a series particularly intended for the field of social service administration. A number of these volumes have been published.

In the execution of these plans Dean Marshall has set up a special office for gathering and sifting material and for mimeographing for temporary use and experiment, until the collections are made up into pamphlets and books. The work of this office last year amounted to two million mimeographed sheets, and, on a cost basis, to more than \$20,000. The materials covered every phase of the practical study of economics and business. Among the published volumes are Professor W. H. Hamilton's *Current Economic Problems* (1914), Professor Marshall's *Readings in Industrial Society* (1918), Clark, Hamilton,

and Moulton's *Readings in the Economics of War* (1918), and Douglas, Atkins, and Hitchcock's *The Worker in Modern Economic Society* (1923).

The experience growing out of this enterprise and the result of experiment with new materials in college classes led to successive shiftings toward earlier years of the college, until finally it occurred to Mr. Marshall that much of what he wanted to accomplish in the teaching of socialized economics and of a more valuable type of economic history than is commonly taught under that title could be mastered in secondary schools if suitable materials were selected and properly presented. For several years he kept this problem in mind and his conviction grew stronger while he and his coworkers were collecting from a wide range of books "a very large mass of materials" that could be drawn upon for teaching at several levels of maturity.

These materials were first utilized for schools during the World War. Director C. H. Judd, of the School of Education of the University of Chicago, and Dean Marshall edited for the United States Bureau of Education (in co-operation with the United States Food Administration) three series of *Lessons in Community and National Life* (1918). The three series were adapted respectively to different levels of instruction, from the senior high school to the intermediate grades of the elementary school, and the chapters were separately published as "Community Leaflets." The purposes of the leaflets, as stated by Director Judd, were: (1) "First of all, to lay the foundations for an intelligent enthusiasm for the United States"; (2) "to bring industry into the schools in a way which will appeal to the intelligence of pupils and will intellectualize all later contact with practical affairs"; (3) "to create a sense of personal responsibility, which can result only when the pupil is shown how his life is interdependent with the life of other members of society." To secure these ends, short sketches were presented describing certain essential facts of national and community life, grouped under the following topics:

- I. Social Organization and the Effects of the War.
- II. Production and Wise Consumption.
- III. Machine Industry and Community Life.
- IV. National Control and Food Conservation.
- V. Customs, Laws, and Forms of Government.
- VI. Business Organization and National Standards.
- VII. Concentration of Population, Industries, and Institutions.
- VIII. The Worker and the Wage System.

In content and treatment these *Lessons* were influenced by the war conditions and atmosphere, yet they were evidently intended to be and were gen-

erally regarded as suggestive for work in the social studies in less disturbed times.

Mr. Marshall's interest and activity in connection with the school problem continued and found expression through his chairmanship of a Commission authorized by the Association of Collegiate Schools of Business to study the correlation of secondary and collegiate education. This Commission was made up of five representatives of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, and of one each from the Association of Secondary School Principals, the American Federation of Labor, and the National Industrial Conference Board (employers). Its recommendations were endorsed by the American Economic Association's Committee on Economics in Schools, of which Dean Marshall was chairman.¹ The Commission acknowledges indebtedness to the "Briarcliff Conference," held in May, 1921, under the auspices of the Commonwealth Fund, which Mr. Marshall attended.

A report of this Commission with the title *Social Studies in Secondary Schools* was published in April, 1922.² The recommendations were made with "particular reference to business education," but the aims and principles formulated were clearly intended to apply in large measure to all secondary schools. "The Commission proposes a program of social studies for the junior high school which it believes to be more fundamental and far-reaching than the other proposals which have been made. Such a program will profoundly affect the work of the elementary school and of the senior high school. The junior high school is, however, the strategic point for an attack at the present time." The program of studies Mr. Marshall now advocates for the junior high school grades closely resembles the one proposed by the Commission, although there has been considerable reworking of details and arrangement.

A number of collaborators working under the direction of Mr. Marshall have assisted in collecting and preparing materials for the school courses. Some of this work has been done by graduate students, and some by members of the staff and specialists in economics, sociology, psychology, and history. Some of these workers have taught successfully in secondary schools while others are without such experience. Mr. Marshall himself has not taught in schools, but has sought the advice of teachers and professional educators, and Director Judd, of the School of Education, is associated with him in the editorship. A complete scheme of courses in the social studies for the junior high school has been worked out by Mr. Marshall and his associates, and a complete body of materials is in course of preparation. The enterprise has received financial aid from the Commonwealth Fund and other sources, and a large amount of material has already been collected. Publication in a "Preliminary Edition" is just beginning.

HOW THE MATERIALS ARE SELECTED AND ORGANIZED

The program has been prepared on the conviction that the purpose of the social studies is "that of giving our youth an awareness of what it means to live together in organized society, an appreciation of how

we do live together, and an understanding of the conditions precedent to living together well, to the end that our youth may develop those ideals, abilities, and tendencies to act, which are essential to effective participation in our society." "Awareness," "appreciation," and "understanding" come only when descriptive facts are presented in their relationships.

When Mr. Marshall was asked if he professed to have selected his materials by a scientific procedure he smilingly replied that he did not claim to have used a comptometer. He outlined the story of the growth of his interest as it has been sketched in this Report. His preparation has been twenty years of continuous study of economics and the related social sciences from the point of view that has been described, rather than a formal effort to select material according to set rules in two or three years of concentrated effort. He does proceed upon carefully considered principles, however. The statement of the aim of teaching the social studies already quoted recurs again and again in Mr. Marshall's discussions and in the reports of the various committees and commissions with which he has been connected. He believes that a course should be drawn with practical school conditions in mind, and in such a way as to present the fewest administrative difficulties. Yet he is convinced that the present conditions warrant "a somewhat daring attempt to think through, as a coherent whole, our presentation of the secondary-social studies, without too much regard for traditional claims or customary practices. More specifically, there is here an opportunity to introduce *social study* rather than specialized branches of social studies."

The course is to be distinctly composite in character. The supposed "claims" of the several "subjects" (history, economics, government, sociology, or geography) "will disappear in any vital discussion of the contribution of social studies to our social living. These branches of social study are not separable, save for the purpose of emphasizing some particular point of view on social living." The central purpose of the work should be the study of American social life and how it came to be as it is, and the value of material now commonly found in school curricula should be measured by "the extent to which it contributes significantly to the understanding of our social living." History is accorded a somewhat special position, however, in view of its peculiar function of treating development. Special volumes are allotted to the history of the nation and to the history of mankind, while the introduction to the social studies for Grade VII is presented in such a way as to give some indication of "The Story of Human Progress." It is a basic principle, however, that materials are to be drawn from any field of knowledge according to the need for them in explaining the various topics and problems selected for study.

One of the chief principles laid down is the rule that the materials must be selected and prepared by trained specialists in the social sciences—as Mr. Judd puts it, "This material should be prepared with the largest possible co-operation of trained specialists and a few selected teachers who are given time to

perfect their work." (*Twenty-second Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II, p. 35.) It is another fundamental principle that "the material for the social studies should be organized in a definite, scientific system around certain guiding principles." Experience with the natural sciences has shown "beyond a possibility of doubt that science will have to be systematic if it is to be a successful subject of instruction. . . . We are being urged by some people to break down the whole structure of the school curriculum and to let pupils hunt up so-called 'projects' wherever they can find them. We are being told that if pupils carry through enough projects they will learn that the world is governed by systematic laws. They will discover for themselves what the race has been working out through long ages. . . . Perhaps children might rediscover science, but it is quite certain that they will not do so in a single lifetime, much less in a school lifetime. What children need, if they are to get in a short time what the race has evolved in a long time, is guidance in systematic thinking. They must have made clear to them the important relations around which they can group their experiences." (*Year Book*, pp. 35, 32.)

The problem method of instruction should be used freely, though not in such a way as to interfere with the application of the principles just set forth. The study of problems, moreover, should be concerned primarily and chiefly with the physiology rather than the pathology of social living. The latter is not to be entirely neglected, but should be subordinate to an understanding of the anatomy and physiology of society.

"Men work together in organized society," and vocational needs should be kept in mind during the preparation of a program in the social studies, but "specialized studies should not be allowed to supplant fundamental courses." Mr. Marshall does not approve the type of course that commonly goes by the name of "vocational civics" as included, for example, in the Pennsylvania scheme. The attempt to apply a method of "job analysis" is not ordinarily worked out in a way that reaches down to the real fundamentals.

The program of social studies must be organized also in terms of the psychology of learning. "The average child of the seventh grade is at least beginning to have a social consciousness. His mind is reaching out to understand his relationships to other people, and to society as a whole. The fact that he is not aware of his developing attitude does not interfere with making use of this interest." The first topic presented to the seventh grade is "Man's Place in the Great Current of Life," and the purpose of this chapter, Mr. Marshall explains, is "to give a point of view that will color the thinking of the child as he goes on with the rest of the book . . . we wish him to get a *point of view*. We wish him to begin to get ideas of *relativity*." The progress of the studies must not be too rapid. The student must be given time "to build up an apperceptive basis for his thinking." The seventh grade should be occupied to a great extent with the study of *types* of

social organization, with some attention to the factors that condition them; the eighth grade will emphasize the practices of our modern social organization, with attention to how they developed; while the ninth grade will be ready for some discussion of the *principles* of social organization. The senior high school will offer possibilities for the study of "social science material in somewhat more specialized terms."

THE PROGRAM FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Seeking to apply these principles and to realize the general purpose of the social studies as quoted, Mr. Marshall and his associates propose the following plan for the Junior High School:

GRADE SEVEN.

1. The Story of Human Progress. (An introduction to the Social Studies.)
2. Collateral Readings to accompany the "Story of Human Progress."
3. Teacher's Manual.
4. English Correlated with Social Studies.
5. Mathematics Correlated with Social Studies.
6. Natural Science Correlated with Social Studies.

GRADE EIGHT.

1. The Individual's Place in Society: Vocational Survey.
2. Collateral Readings to accompany the "Individual's Place in Society."
3. History of the United States.
- 4, 5, 6. English, Mathematics, and Natural Science Correlated with Social Studies.

GRADE NINE.

1. Principles of Social Organization.
2. Collateral Readings for "Principles of Social Organization."
3. Opening of the World to the Use of Man.

MATERIALS FOR GRADE SEVEN

"The Story of Human Progress" for the Seventh Grade has been prepared by Mr. Marshall himself and the first six chapters have just been published in a "preliminary edition" by the Macmillan Company. They make a pamphlet 5 by 7½ inches in size, containing 239 pages, with pictures, charts, and tables. The remaining chapters will be published in the spring and the collateral readings probably in the summer. A Leaflet of "Notes to the Teacher" on Chapters I-VI has been printed, supplying the first 16 pages of the "Teacher's Manual." The full outline for this Seventh Grade course, including the portions not yet published, is as follows:

Part I. Introduction

- I. Man's Place in the Great Current of Life.
 - Part II. Man in Simple Groups or Societies
- II. Neanderthal Man: The Mere Beginnings of Tools and Communication.

(His wretched mode of living as related to inadequate tools, both physical and mental.)
- III. The Iroquois: The Benefits of Tools, Communication, and Social Organization.
 - A. Introduction: The Iroquois as an example of neolithic culture.
 - B. The Iroquois as toolmakers and harnessers of nature. (Shelter-making, hunting, fishing, agriculture, domestic arts.)
 - C. The Iroquois as communicators. (Speech, the forerunners of writing, transportation, trade, beginnings of money.)

D. The Iroquois as teamworkers and planning organizers. (Social organization as seen in family, clan, and village life; in tribal and league government; in division of labor; in religion and other agencies of social control; in property rights; in play and recreation.)

Part III. Man, The Harnesser of Nature:
Multiplication of Man's Powers

IV. Fire and the Metals as Phases of Man's Harnessing of Nature.

- A. Man's Conquest of fire.
- B. Man's Conquest of the metals.
- C. Metals and living together well.

V. Power and the Machine as other Phases of Man's Harnessing of Nature.

- A. How man has harnessed power and used it to drive machines.
- B. What the power-driven machine has meant for our living together well.

VI. Science: The Creative Stage of Man's Harnessing of Nature.

- A. What science is and why it is the greatest of all harnessers.
- B. How we got our science and what we owe to it.

VII. Harnessing Nature and Living Together Well.

- A. Some general statements about living together well.
- B. The relationship of natural resources to living together well.
- C. The relationship of science to living together well.
- D. The relationship of capital goods to living together well.
- E. The relationship of human resources to living together well.
- F. The relationship of good ideals to living together well.

Part IV. Man the Communicator: Further
Multiplication of Man's Powers

VIII. Sign Language, Spoken Language, Written Language, Printed Language, Multipliers of Man's Powers.

- (a) Communication and its beginning in gestures.
- (b) Spoken language a multiplier.
- (c) Multiplication through writing.
- (d) Multiplication by printing.

IX. Multiplication of Powers by Conquering Distance.

- (a) The wretchedness of early travel and transport.
- (b) The conquest of the water-ways.
- (c) The conquest of land by the railroad.
- (d) The automobile and the conquest of the air.
- (e) Electricity annihilates distance.

X. Multiplication Through Trade: Money, the Language of Trade.

- (a) Multiplication of powers through trade and commerce.
- (b) Money, the language of trade.

XI. Passing on the Torch.

- (a) What it means to pass on the torch.
- (b) The family, the great torch-bearer.
- (c) The school's co-operation in torch-bearing.
- (d) The church and other co-operators.

XII. Communication and Living Together Well.

- (a) Command of language and living together well.
- (b) Our systems of communication and living together well.
- (c) Torch-bearing and living together well.
- (d) Ideals, the guides of communication.

Part V. Man the Teamworker and Co-operator:
Social Organization

XIII. The Co-operation of Specialists.

- (a) Specialization, another multiplier of powers.
- (b) The co-operation of specialists through authority and through exchange.

XIV. Finding our Places and Pulling the Load.

- (a) Groups with few place-finding problems.
- (b) The promptings of the gain spirit.
- (c) Social regulation, personal tastes, and the desire to serve.
- (d) The multiplier, individual initiative (working through private property competition).

XV. Social Control: Custom, Law, Public Opinion, Conscience and Religion.

- (a) Custom, a link with the past.
- (b) Laws, the exact and definite rules of the game.
- (c) Public opinion, a tool of educated democracy.
- (d) The sense of divine approval.

XVI. Social Control: The State and Government.

- (a) The state, a multiplier by enlarging co-operation.
- (b) The multiplier democracy.
- (c) The framework of American government.

XVII. Social Organization and Living Together Well.

- (a) Specialization and Living together well.
- (b) Place finding devices and living together well.
- (c) The team spirit and living together well.
- (d) Conscious social control and living together well.
- (e) Changing social organization and living together well.
- (f) Guidance by ideals and aspirations.

Part VI. Man the Idealist and Aspirer

XVIII. Ideals, the Guides to Living Together Well.

- (a) The importance of ideals and aspirations.
- (b) The development of ideals and aspirations.
- (c) The ideals and aspirations of the individual.
- (d) The ideals and aspirations of the group.
- (e) What does the future hold?

The specific purposes are definitely indicated for each part; for example, those of Part I are: "To realize that our world is only a small part of the universe; that man is a small and a very recent part of the life of our world; to begin to see that our present ways of living are really quite new." Those for Part II are: "To see how earlier groups or societies lived, so that we may better understand how much progress we have made, and that ability to harness nature, to communicate, and to do teamwork all increase man's power to live well." The purposes of Part III are: "To see some of the more striking ways in which man has increased his powers by harnessing nature; to understand why it is that scientific knowledge is such a great aid to man; to realize how important it is to be able to harness nature if we wish to live together well."

Each chapter begins with "Questions to Keep in Mind While Reading the Chapter." For example, the following questions confront the pupil when he begins to read Chapter VI, "Science, The Creative Stage of Man's Harnessing of Nature": "(1) How does scientific knowledge increase man's powers over nature? (2) How did man get this scientific knowledge? How has it developed and of what is it composed? (3) What can we expect of the future of scientific knowledge?"

At the end of each chapter is a list of "Problems," usually twenty-five or thirty in number. The following are examples for Chapter VII:

1. Define or explain: Capital goods; consumers' goods; per capita; producers' goods; human resources; natural resources; acquired knowledge; natural environment.

2. Can we measure our wealth in any other way than in dollars? If measured in pounds, acres, etc., can we add it all up and say what the total was? Is money a measuring device?

3. What is the difference between wealth and income? Could a person with little wealth have a considerable income? What is the difference between total wealth and per capita wealth?

5. It has been said that if goods were evenly divided we could all live well, and still not need to work more than one hour a day. Does that seem probable to you? Suppose that that statement were true, would it be better to work more hours a day, anyhow?

8. Does poverty harm only those who endure it or does it harm the rest of us also?

13. "Our civilization is built upon power." What does this mean?

20. What will happen if we harness the atom?

29. "Without right ideals, all harnessing of nature is in vain—it is even harmful." What does this mean?

30. Do you picture man ever returning (the world over) to the state of neolithic man? Give reasons for your belief.

Concerning the details of the remainder of the program, not much information is available. A substantial part of the materials for the "Individual's Place in Society" and the accompanying collateral readings has been collected, these volumes being the task of Dr. L. S. Lyon, Associate Professor of Commercial Organization. Most of the correlated material in English has been collected by Mr. Lyman, of the University High School, and much of the correlated mathematics has been prepared by Mr. E. R. Breslich, of the University High School. "The Opening of the World to the Use of Man" is a survey of world history from the point of view indicated by the title. Professor Scott, of the History Department of the University of Chicago, is writing this story.

Much of the seventh grade material and some of the special material for the commercial courses such as those on "Elements of Business Administration" and "The Worker and Personnel Administration" have been presented to children in the classroom.

IV. A Project to Construct Scientifically a Fact Course in Social Studies for the Grades

UNDERTAKEN BY SUPERINTENDENT CARLETON W. WASHBURNE AND THE "WINNETKA SOCIAL SCIENCE SEMINAR"

The object of Superintendent Washburne and his Social Science Seminar is to construct a curriculum by a strictly scientific procedure without any dependence upon opinion and judgment. The field chosen is the social studies in the intermediate grades. Mr. Washburne distinguishes a "fact course" from a "problem course." He does not assert that this separation represents his final judgment and he expresses the hope that scientific methods may be devised to ascertain whether fact courses and problem courses should be parallel, successive, or combined. He thinks a decision should be reached by scientific methods rather than by the professional judgment of educators.

At present the problem course is represented in the Winnetka schools by the use of the Rugg Social Science Pamphlets in the junior high school grades. Mr. Washburne decided that under the existing circumstances his research and experiment should be

These tests can hardly be regarded as conclusive, however. The teaching has been done in the University High School at the University of Chicago. The pupils were drawn from grades VIII and IX in an eleven-year course and they had previously studied the course in community life worked out by Mr. H. C. Hill⁴ and now available in his textbook. The teacher's conviction of success therefore throws a little light on the adaptation of the materials to the ordinary seventh grade pupil in the public schools. One class in a public school in Detroit has used some of the materials for a short time, but it has not been possible to obtain any report about the results. The "Preliminary Edition" just beginning to appear will afford opportunities for the test of classroom experience.

DISCUSSION

Comparison of this program with those proposed by Professor Rugg and the University of Chicago High School and consideration of the questions suggested at the end of the article on the former will be a convenient way of studying critically the Marshall-Judd course.

¹ Mr. Marshall also served as Chairman of the Joint Commission on Social Studies in Schools, composed of two representatives each from the American Historical Association, American Political Science Association, American Economic Association, American Sociological Society, National Council of Geography Teachers, and Association of Collegiate Schools of Business. The members of the Commission agreed upon statements concerning the purpose of teaching the social studies, and the distinct contribution of each of the special studies in the group.

² University of Chicago Press. The last chapter of this report summarizing the proposals of the Commission was reprinted as Chapter III in Part II of the Twenty-Second Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education, 1923.

³ These quotations from Mr. Judd are expressly endorsed and accepted by Mr. Marshall (Year Book, p. 75).

⁴ Community Life and Civic Problems (Ginn and Company).

devoted to the building of a "fact course," to be used by Grades IV, V, and VI of the elementary school, although ultimately it might overlap a little in either direction.

In speaking of a fact course Mr. Washburne has in mind a body of materials chosen for the purpose of explaining persons, places, events, and dates that are commonly known to intelligent people and therefore ought to be familiar to children. The problem was to select in a purely objective and scientific manner the proper names and dates that would meet these requirements and from them to construct the desired curriculum. It was decided that this list could be compiled from a study of allusions.

How could this list of allusions be compiled? Conversation was first considered, but ruled out on the ground that it would be impossible to use without an army of stenographers. Books were considered but not used, because it was felt that the under-

taking would be impossibly large if a fair sampling of books were studied. This brought the experimenters to periodicals. It was assumed that magazines and newspapers form a very large part of the reading of most Americans; that writers of books also write for periodicals and in the matter of allusions are likely to be as well represented in the one as in the other; and that conversation very likely includes much the same allusions that we meet with in our readings. It was therefore decided to base the study upon newspapers and magazines, with the assurance that a proper tabulation of the allusions found therein would serve as the desired guide to what must be taught in order that children may "read intelligently."

Any account of the Winnetka enterprise must therefore fall into two main parts: one to describe the study which resulted in the accumulation of a list of allusions or "facts"; the other relating how these items were used for the building of a course in the grades.

THE STATISTICAL INVESTIGATION

The first step was to organize a "Social Science Seminar," composed of Superintendent Washburne and about a dozen "well trained and experienced teachers." This group began its meetings in the autumn of 1920, assembling one evening a week. During one year financial help was granted from the Commonwealth Fund and later the work was subsidized by the city Board of Education. A special research worker was employed, Miss Louise M. Mohr having held this position after the first six months.

The general scope and character of the investigation having been decided upon, it was first necessary to choose the periodicals and these were selected to represent several types of subject matter, widely distributed groups of readers, and the period of years from 1905 to 1922. The list is as follows: *Atlantic Monthly*, *Bookman*, *Century*, *Scribners'*, *Saturday Evening Post*, *Ladies' Home Journal*, *Cosmopolitan*, *American Magazine*, *World's Work*, *Outlook*, *Literary Digest*, *Nation*, *New Republic*, and among the newspapers the *Chicago Tribune*, the *New York Times*, *Chicago Herald-Examiner* (a Hearst paper), and the *Christian Science Monitor*. It was felt that this group would represent the literary, popular fiction, and news periodicals, and that the newspapers would be representative of different groups of interests and readers. The final list was reached after considerable discussion and with the deliberate opinion that it should not be too "high-brow." About fifteen issues of each periodical were selected, three for each third year, arranged so as to cover nearly every month of every year during the period chosen. In this way it was planned to avoid seasonal weighting of items, and undue emphasis that might result from material of merely temporary interest.

The workers then began their reading, reading through each issue of each periodical, recording every allusion to a person, place, event, or date, excepting

that advertisements were disregarded. After some hesitation, all allusions, even the most familiar, were included in the list, except that allusions which were unknown to all members of the Seminar were excluded. In this way more than 80,000 allusions were noted on uniform slips, which were arranged alphabetically and transcribed to large charts. There the data were arranged in such a way as to show the gross number of allusions, the number of articles containing allusions to any item, range of years covered by the allusions (the possible maximum 18), and the number of "periodical-years." This list was found by a process of calculation to show the distribution of allusions both by number of years and number of periodicals, with the idea that this would be the best indication of the likelihood of meeting such allusions. If the gross number of allusions had been used, for example, the number might be unduly large because of the temporary prominence of a subject.

The conclusion was reached that on the whole the "periodical-year" would give the most reliable results and would come very near to being a perfect index of the probability of meeting allusions to any given item. The entire list of names and dates was therefore grouped by periodical-years, but if the index number was the same for several items they were ranked according to the range of years, then according to the number of articles containing the allusion, and finally, if necessary, by the gross number of allusions. Such was the procedure used to eliminate opinion and judgment, and to obtain a list of allusions with a strictly objective ranking of all items.¹

The list obtained is too long to be printed here, but the following items will serve as examples. The first 17 items, as Mr. Washburne arranges them on the basis of a statistical study, are as follows, the four columns indicating, respectively, the "periodical-years," the range of years, the number of articles, and the gross number of allusions:

America (meaning U. S.)	103	18	1211	5903
England	103	18	1155	3315
France	100	18	1390	3848
New York (city).....	100	18	911	2386
China	98	18	353	750
London	95	18	629	1303
Germany	92	18	674	3015
Boston	92	18	297	564
New York (state).....	86	18	594	1090
Paris	86	18	516	1494
Italy	86	18	428	1140
Japan	86	18	267	902
Great Britain	83	18	400	1539
Europe	81	18	837	1995
United States	81	18	659	1725
Rome	81	18	202	604
California	81	18	193	269

The following are samples of groups of names, with the same number of "periodical-years," and in this respect of equal value, but further arranged according to the other three items already explained:

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>47. Bryan, W. J.
Shakespeare
Connecticut
Anglo-Saxon
Prussia
Illinois
Missouri
Venice
Texas
Ohio
Parliament
Columbia Univ.</p> <p>22. East, The (U. S.)
North, The (U. S.)
Renaissance
Glasgow
Hawthorne, N.
Algeria
Panama
Utah
West Point
Nevada
Missouri River
Madrid
Asia Minor
Shelley
Balfour
Trenton
Byron
Declaration of Independence
Cincinnati
Chicago, Univ. of
Bohemia
Eliot, Charles W.
Seattle
LaFayette
Marne
Montenegro
Quebec
Panama Canal
Manila
Danube
World War
Bolsheviki</p> | <p>42. Petrograd (incl. St. Petersburg)
Detroit
Arabia
Liverpool
Shaw, George
Bernard
Mississippi River</p> <p>19. Baptist
"Middle West"
(U. S.)
Ruskin, J.
Gompers, Samuel
Aristotle
Arctic
Lamb, Charles
Porto Rico
St. Paul, Minn.
Episcopal
House of Commons
Washington (state)
Clemenceau
Tammany
Voltaire
Rembrandt
Winnipeg
Syracuse, N. Y.
Balsac
Dewey, George
New Hampshire
West Virginia
Niagara
Addams, Jane
Verdun
Argentina
Czechs
Ypres
Honolulu
Hoover
League of Nations</p> |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

HOW THE COURSE OF STUDY WAS MADE

The long list of allusions might be used as the basis for the course of study in any one of a number of ways, but it was decided to construct the "fact course" by incorporating all the items in a chronological, historical narrative, written with the exclusive purpose of explaining the tabulated allusions. This raised the problem of ascertaining what ought to be taught about any given item. A good method, it was felt, would be to have a large number of people through a suitable test write down the associations occurring to them on the mention of any given item, but this method was not undertaken because of its practical difficulty. For the same reason no attempt was made to go through the periodicals again in order to classify the items associated with each

of the allusions. It was therefore decided to consult the "best authorities," these being chosen by the research workers. The historians, however, being suspected of an interest in "history for its own sake," while the educators are interested in "enabling children to understand what people are talking and writing about," the "best authorities" are to be used only as a source from which to draw data selected and evaluated in some other way.

The list of allusions was divided into about 30 topical groups, arranged so as to give, for example, a list of important personages or places for "ancient history" or for a certain period of the history of the United States. These topical lists provide the materials. How can narrative history be written so as to escape bondage to the historians and determine in a purely scientific manner the proper proportions and selection of detail? The importance of each main subject or group is determined entirely by its rank in the list and details about these main topics are selected in the same way. So far as possible the narrative is confined entirely to names occurring in the classified lists, with their relative importance decided exclusively by the index number. For example, in treating of Napoleon, the time devoted to him and his influence is determined by his rank in the list. But how shall the content of his allotment be decided—that is, what names of persons, places, and events connected with Napoleon are to appear in the story? The list of allusions is searched to find what persons, places, and events associated with Napoleon are there mentioned, and only those items appearing in the graded lists are included in the story, while the amount of attention given to each item is measured by its position in the scale. This procedure is faithfully adhered to regardless of how strongly historians may emphasize certain names and events not appearing in the graded list or included there with a low index number. In short, the historical importance of names and events, as historical importance is ordinarily measured, is entirely irrelevant. The test of importance, of emphasis, of proportion, lies entirely in the index numbers of the list of allusions. This particular example of the treatment of Napoleon was given by the research worker, and was confirmed by Superintendent Washburne. They spoke in a similar way of Mohammed, and the World War, as other topics to illustrate the method of treatment.

The graded lists are followed negatively as well as positively, i. e., names not on the list or occupying a very low place on the list are entirely omitted if it is possible to do so without crippling the narrative. To take examples mentioned by the research worker, it was found that "Caspian Sea" and "Ural Mountains," in spite of a low position on the graded list, came in so often that it was impossible to omit them without very awkward and frequent circumlocution; hence they were reluctantly admitted to the narrative after a vain effort had been made to dispense with them. As another example of this principle, it was stated that "Feudal Age" as an allusion does not appear in the graded list, and consequently the entire subject of feudalism would have been

omitted except for the fact that "Middle Ages" appears in the list, and cannot be explained without some reference to feudalism.

The narrative resulting from this procedure is to cover all times and all countries to which the graded list of allusions takes it, the story being chronologically arranged. This course is regarded as chiefly a composite course in history and geography, but any material from whatever field of knowledge that may be necessary to explain the allusions is included, following always, however, the principles of inclusion and exclusion, and of proportion already set forth.

However, there is an effort to give as much coherence as possible to the story by the use of certain "organizing principles," such as "the action of cause and effect . . . the interdependence of man on man." But it is specially emphasized that these principles have nothing to do with determining the selection of facts treated. Such purposes are incidental, not basic, the one fundamental purpose being to provide "a fact course to make children intelligent concerning commonly known persons, places, and events."

The narrative has so far been prepared only for the fifth grade and is entitled "The Story of the Middle Ages," although it begins with "The Fall of Rome," and in the course of telling about that subject gets back to the Wars of the Republic and the struggle between Rome and Carthage. The five chapters that have thus far been prepared are devoted to the following topics:

INTRODUCTION: Announces to the pupils that "this course in history and geography aims to teach you all you have to know about important places and events of our world." It gives a list of geographical terms on which the pupil is warned that he must pass a test.

CHAPTER I. THE FALL OF ROME.

- A. The story of how Rome went to war with Carthage.
- B. The story of how wars destroyed the farms of Italy.
- C. How Rome's wars destroyed many of her best men.

CHAPTER II. THE ROMAN EMPIRE CRUMBLES UNDER THE ATTACKS OF THE BARBARIANS.

- A. The barbarians at home.
- B. The barbarians' migrations.

CHAPTER III. HOW BELIEVING THE SAME THING HELPS TO UNITE PEOPLE.

- A. (An introduction.)
- B. The story of Gautama Buddha.
- C. The story of Confucius.
- D. The story of Mohammed.
 - a. Mohammed among the Bedouins.
 - b. Mohammed in Mecca.
 - c. Mohammed begins his teachings.
- E. The Moslem Religion spreads out in Asia and Africa.

CHAPTER IV. THE BUILDING OF A NEW CIVILIZATION IN EUROPE.

- A. What happened in the Roman Empire during the Barbarian invasion.
 - a. The story of Julius (a Roman boy who lived in a village in Southern Gaul).
- B. How the Moslems spread until they owned a great empire.
 - a. How Omar came to Jerusalem.
- C. How Christianity helped to teach the people of Europe to work together.

CHAPTER V. THE BUILDING OF A NEW CIVILIZATION IN EUROPE.

- A. How Gaul Became France.
- B. How Britain Became England.
 - a. How the Teutons happened to come to Britain.
- C. How the Pirates from the north became rulers in France and England.
 - a. The story of Rolf.

SOME QUESTIONS SUGGESTED

In view of the claim that the Winnetka course is built by a strictly scientific procedure, eliminating the personal judgment ordinarily used in curriculum-making, it seems appropriate to raise some questions:

1. The graded list of allusions is statistically compiled. Assuming that this scientifically determines the relative frequency of proper names mentioned in certain magazines and newspapers, the critical reader should ask how many other steps in the various processes rest upon judgment as against scientific deduction. Is it an inevitable scientific deduction that a "fact course" in the social studies should be built exclusively from such a graded list?

2. Are the allusions in certain periodicals for the past fifteen or twenty years the best guide to what knowledge will be most useful for the future fifteen or twenty years?

3. Are periodicals a sufficient guide to the content of a "fact course" in the social studies?

4. Is the index of frequency of allusions in newspapers and magazines a scientific measure of their importance in education? Is it necessarily more important to understand an allusion that occurs twenty times in such a list than to understand one that occurs five or ten times? What is the measure of importance of a fact and what is "intelligent reading?" The critics of the use to which the graded list is put (for example, Professor Bagley and the late Professor Colvin) point to some of the curious equalities and the inequalities of the list. For example, W. J. Bryan, Shakespeare, Prussia, and Missouri are of approximately equal importance, with Bryan outranking the others. Algeria, Trenton, the Declaration of Independence, the World War, and the Bolsheviks are bracketed but graded in the order named.

But Superintendent Washburne thinks that the index number should nevertheless be followed throughout, on the ground that it measures the importance of allusions as such. It would spoil the whole plan to introduce an element of personal judgment.

5. What does it mean to understand an allusion? If it be assumed that the index figure is a measure of importance, does it follow that the amount of time or emphasis in the school should necessarily follow that figure? Should no allowance be made for what is learned outside of school? Mr. Washburne thought not, on the ground that the procedure could be *scientific* only if the index figure be followed absolutely,

(This Report will be continued in the January Issue)

and the element of personal judgment entirely eliminated.

6. Does the value of such a comprehensive and graded list depend entirely on its exclusive employment in the building of a "fact course," or might it be used to advantage as a contributory body of fact used frankly from the point of view of professional judgment and common sense?

Preliminary Announcement of the Program of the Annual Meeting of the American Historical Association

Columbus, Ohio, December 27 to 29, 1923

The literary sessions are open to the public. Except where special arrangements have been made in sessions of two or three papers the time of each paper is limited to twenty minutes.

THURSDAY, DECEMBER 27

10.00 A. M. GROUP MEETINGS.

History of Law. Parlor A, Hotel Deshler.

Chairman: Arthur C. Howland, University of Pennsylvania.

Customs and the Common Law in Kent, Nellie Neilson, Mount Holyoke College.

The Case of the Miscreant Cardinal, 1382, Theodore F. T. Plucknett, Harvard University.

A By-Product of the Law, Helen Tunnicliff Catterall, Massachusetts Bar.

The Common Law and the Idea of Progress, Edwin F. Albertsworth, Western Reserve University.

Modern European History. Ball-room, Hotel Deshler.

Chairman: Guy S. Ford, University of Minnesota.

Louis XIV's Financial Relations with Charles II and the English Parliament, Clude L. Grose, Northwestern University.

Communism during the French Revolution, 1789-93, Louis Gottschalk, University of Louisville.

The Evolution of Industrial Freedom along the Rhine, 1789-1815, Hugo C. M. Wendel, New York University.

International Aspects of the Baltic Sea, John H. Wuorinen, University of Iowa.

Impressions of Soviet Russia on a Historian, Frank A. Golder, Stanford University.

Social Aspects of the American Revolution. Parlors B and C, Hotel Deshler.

Chairman: Arthur M. Schlesinger, University of Iowa.

Taxation and Social Unrest in Connecticut, 1760-1775, Lawrence H. Gipson, Wabash College.

Educational Influences in the Revolution, Marcus W. Jernegan, University of Chicago.

Manners and Customs as Affected by the American Revolution, Orlando W. Stephenson, University of Michigan.

12.30 P. M. JOINT LUNCHEON CONFERENCE with the Political Science Association and the National Council for the Social Studies. Subscription luncheon. Ball-room, Hotel Deshler.

Social Studies in the Schools.

Chairman: Andrew C. McLaughlin, University of Chicago.

The Place of Government, William B. Munro, Harvard University.

The Place of History, Herbert D. Foster, Dartmouth College.

The Twelfth Grade Course in Problems of Democracy, Ray O. Hughes, Peabody High School, Pittsburgh.

General Discussion:

Thomas J. McCormack, La Salle-Peru High School, La Salle, Ill.

Thomas H. Reed, University of Michigan.

John J. Van Nostrand, Jr., University of California.

2.30 P. M. GENERAL SESSION. Ball-room, Hotel Deshler. Contributions and Place of History in the Schools.

Chairman: President Edward P. Cheyney, University of Pennsylvania.

The Relations of the Association to the Problem of History in the Schools, by the President of the Association.

A Survey of the Special Experiments with the Social Studies in the Schools, J. Montgomery Gambrill, Columbia University.

Tentative Inferences from the History Inquiry, Edgar Dawson, Hunter College.

Discussion:

Charles H. Haskins, Harvard University.

August C. Krey, University of Minnesota.

The Attack upon History Textbooks, Bessie L. Pierce, University of Iowa.

Discussion:

Evarts B. Greene, Columbia University.

6.30 P. M. COMPLIMENTARY DINNER FOR THE MEMBERS OF THE ASSOCIATION. Ball-room, Hotel Deshler.

8.00 P. M. JOINT SESSION, American Historical Association and American Political Science Association. Ball-room, Hotel Deshler.

Chairman and Address of Welcome, The Honorable James E. Campbell, President of the Ohio Archeological and Historical Society.

Presidential Addresses.

Recent Political Developments: Progress or Change? Harry A. Garfield, President of the American Political Science Association.

Law in History, Edward P. Cheyney, President of the American Historical Association.

FRIDAY, DECEMBER 28

10.00 A. M. GROUP MEETINGS. Ohio State University. English History. Parlor, Pomerene Hall, State University. Chairman: Wallace Notestein, Cornell University.

A Study in the Beginnings of English Self-government, Albert B. White, University of Minnesota.

The Monastic Lands as a determining Factor in English History, 1547-1560, Frederick C. Dietz, University of Illinois.

An Illustration of Buckingham's Parliamentary Methods, Frances H. Relf, Wells College.

The Colonial Policy of Gladstone's First Ministry, 1868-1874, Paul Knaplund, University of Wisconsin.

Discussion: Opened by Frank J. Klingberg, University of California, Southern Branch.

American History since the Civil War. Blue Room, Pomerene Hall, State University.

The Persistence of Sectionalism in the Politics of Mississippi, 1848-1922, Ulrich B. Phillips, University of Michigan.

The Papers of Grover Cleveland, Robert McElroy, Princeton University.

Some American Influences upon the Canadian Federation Movement, Reginald G. Trotter, Stanford University.

Agricultural History. A Joint Meeting with the Agricultural History Society. Campbell Hall, room 218, State University.

Chairman: Joseph Schafer, Wisconsin Historical Society. The Development and Influence of Agricultural Experiment Stations in the United States, Charles E. Thorne, Wooster, Ohio.

Some Phases of the Cityward Movement as Illustrated from Ohio History, John G. Thompson, Washington.

12.30 P. M. COMPLIMENTARY LUNCHEON given by the President and Trustees of Ohio State University. Ohio Union, University Campus.

2.00 P. M. ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING. Auditorium, Campbell Hall, State University.

4.00-5.30 P. M. Following the business meeting members of the Association are invited to inspect the building and collections of the Ohio Archeological and Historical Society, University Campus, southwest corner of High Street and Fifteenth Avenue.

4.00-5.30 P. M. The ladies are invited to a reception at the residence of Professor and Mrs. George W. Knight, 104 Fifteenth Avenue.

6.00 P. M. Subscription Dinner of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association. Ball-room, Hotel Deshler.

Address: Joseph Schafer, Wisconsin State Historical Association, The Life and Work of Francis Parkman.

Subscription Dinner of the Agricultural History Society. Parlor A, Hotel Deshler.

Address: Ellen C. Semple. Agricultural History a Fundamental Phase of Economic History.

8.00 P. M. GENERAL SESSION.

Diplomatic History Reconsidered.

Bismarck and Europe, 1871-1890, Joseph V. Fuller, University of Wisconsin.

Triple Alliance and Triple Entente, 1902-1914, Bernadotte E. Schmitt, Western Reserve University.

Relations Official and Unofficial between the American and British Governments, 1914-1918, Charles Seymour, Yale University.

9.30-11.30 P. M. RECEPTION AND SMOKER FOR ALL MEMBERS. Athletic Club, 140 East Broad Street. Given by the Ohio Archeological and Historical Society.

SATURDAY, DECEMBER 29

10.00 A. M. GROUP MEETING.

Early Diplomatic Relations of the United States. Ball-room, Hotel Deshler.

British Secret Service and the French-American Alliance, Samuel F. Bemis, Whitman College.

French Opinion as a Factor in preventing War between France and America, 1798-1800, James A. James, Northwestern University.

The Early British Ministers to the United States, J. Franklin Jameson, Carnegie Institution.

The American Factor in the Napoleonic Struggle, Frank E. Melvin, University of Kansas.

New Light upon the Oregon Boundary Question, Frederick Merk, Harvard University.

Medieval History. Parlors B and C, Hotel Deshler.

Chairman: James W. Thompson, University of Chicago.

The Origin of Representative Government, Carl Stephenson, Wisconsin University.

How the Knowledge of Printing was carried Westward from China, Thomas F. Carter, Columbia University.

The Crime of Witchcraft, George L. Burr, Cornell University.

The Brethren of the Common Life and their Influence on the Reformation, Albert Hyma, University of North Dakota.

The Westward Movement in American History. Parlor A, Hotel Deshler. A Joint Meeting with the Mississippi Valley Historical Association and the Ohio Valley Historical Association.

Chairman: Eugene C. Barker, President of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

The Westward Expansion of the Vermont People, Lewis D. Stillwell, Dartmouth College.

A Cattleman's Commonwealth on the Western Range, Louis Pelzer, Iowa State University.

Overland Commerce via the Santa Fe Trail, 1848-1880, Ralph P. Bieber, Washington University.

Early Democracy in Kentucky, E. Merton Coulter, University of Georgia.

12.30 P. M. LUNCHEON CONFERENCE OF THE PATRIOTIC SOCIETIES. Subscription Luncheon. Ball-room, Hotel Deshler.

Chairman: Charles T. Greve, Cincinnati.

The Accomplishments and Aims of the Colonial Dames, Mrs. Harris Hancock, Cincinnati.

The Influence of the Sons of the American Revolution upon the Interpretation of American History, Moulton Houk, Committee on Patriotic Education, Sons of American Revolution.

What the Patriotic Societies can do to aid the Organization of Work in Ohio History, Carl Wittke, Ohio State University.

2.30 P. M. GROUP MEETINGS.

The Monroe Doctrine at the End of a Century. Ball-room, Hotel Deshler.

Chairman: William E. Dodd, University of Chicago.

European Expansion and the Monroe Doctrine, Charles E. Chapman, University of California.

Some Contemporary Mexican Reactions to Cleveland's Venezuelan Message, J. Fred Rippy, University of Chicago.

The Monroe Doctrine from the Latin-American Viewpoint, J. Morene-Lacalle, Middlebury College.

Monroism and Pan-Americanism, Isaac J. Cox, Northwestern University.

The Influence of Christian Missions in History. Parlors A and B, Hotel Deshler.

Chairman: Evarts B. Greene, Columbia University.

The Cultural Influence of Monastic Missions upon the Celtic and German Tribes, Howard M. Stuckert, Ohio State University.

The Influence of American Missions in Turkey, Albert H. Lybyer, University of Illinois.

Christian Missions in the Far East in the Nineteenth Century, Tyler Dennett, Washington, D. C.

The Influence of Missions in determining President Grant's Indian Policy, Martha L. Edwards, University of Wisconsin.

The Conference of State Historical Societies. Parlor C, Hotel Deshler.

Chairman: Victor H. Paltsits, New York City Public Library.

Types of Organization which secure Efficiency, Harlow Lindley, Director of the Indiana Historical Commission.

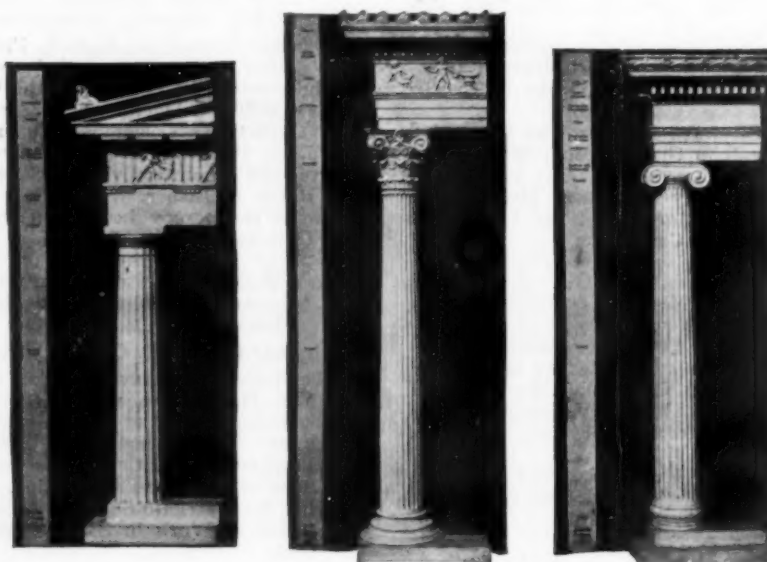
Outstanding Activities, 1920-1923, Dixon R. Fox, Columbia University.

Historical Society Magazines as viewed by an Outsider, William B. Shaw, *American Review of Reviews*.

Business Session.

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THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK, VOLUME XIV

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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